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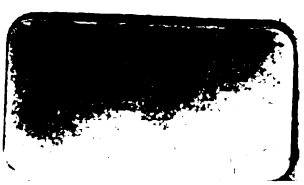

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JULY, 1852.

Art. I.—ERICSSON'S CALORIC ENGINE.

One hundred and twenty years before the Christian era, a wheel, driven by a jet of steam, revolved in the Egyptian capital. More than nineteen centuries succeeded, marking their deep furrows upon the broad face of creation, before this whirling toy ripened into the mighty Steam Engine, now so familiar to our race. During this vast period of time, sixty generations of men were born, and lived, and garnered for eternity. Of all the millions composing these generations, no man had appeared ingenious enough to drive pistons to and fro with that vapor, which had turned the playful wheel in Alexandria. That which now seems to have been its obvious application, nearly two thousand years were consumed in finding out. It required but a cylinder, a piston to move within it, grasping a crank, and with but few and simple contrivances beyond, the steam-engine was complete. That power which had created a rotary motion, could produce a reciprocating motion. To establish this neither experiment nor scientific learning was necessary; and if these had been required, both could have been abundantly supplied. Great geniuses had appeared, and scattered their rich gifts among men, and had passed away; failing to accomplish that which Watt finally completed. Human skill had multiplied luxuries, human invention had created innumerable comforts; but still mankind were as destitute of a Motive Power as when the Israelites journeyed from Egypt. At the end of the eighteenth century this power appeared. At length it assumed a form which enabled it to drag heavy burdens upon land and sea; and then, as the grim monster blew its hot breath from its iron lungs, the globe seemed contracted to half its former size.

In strength it was mightier than any moving thing, and in speed it rivaled the birds of heaven. It has become the strong carrier and the fleet

racer. Glowing fires are its food, and its sinews hot vapor. Its unearthly shriek troubles the air, and its rolling tramp shakes the earth. It impels huge ships over wide seas; defying the hurricane and mastering the storm. It digs the ore, blows the furnace, wields the heavy hammer, and turns the spindle. It toils in the workshop; it toils in mid ocean, and it toils as it bounds along upon its iron track, unchecked by its ponderous train. It has traversed mighty waters, walked upon dark and troubled seas, darted through tunneled mountains, and coursed along western wilds.

Its years have been few. The nineteenth century dawned upon its early infancy, and the first half of that century closed upon its gigantic manhood. In this short period of time, it has stamped new and everlasting characters upon the history of mankind. It has accomplished a grand, and we believe its final destiny. We think its end is at hand, its mission nearly over. If it has been a useful slave, it has also been a costly and dangerous one.

To prevent this danger, the most watchful care, the profoundest skill, have proved unavailing. If the slaughter of our race, caused by its bursting boilers could be presented to view, humanity would stand appalled. Its course has been marked and its onward track strewn with mangled bodies. Of this the press, day by day, tells an awful story.

It is time that this fierce and expensive, though mighty bond-servant, should be replaced by one equally powerful, cheaper, and less dangerous. The age is ripe for this change. The experience of the last few years has determined that steam cannot be profitably used, for commercial purposes, upon the ocean. For a voyage of three thousand miles, a large portion of the freighting capacity of the ship is required for coals alone. These, with the engine and huge boilers, occupy a part at least of that space, which should be filled with merchandise. The expense of the coal consumed is enormous; but this could be borne if it occupied less room. In proportion as the voyage is extended, does steam, as a motive power, become more expensive; until finally, the entire ship would be insufficient to contain the fuel necessary to feed the engine. A steamer of the Collins line consumes, we are informed, about one thousand tons of coal for a voyage of three thousand miles. Double this distance, and although the cost of the coal is but doubled, nearly the entire freighting room of the steamer is absorbed by it, and her power to earn freight is gone. Still increase this distance, with no means to supply fuel upon the route, and steam machinery becomes worse than useless. The broad Pacific cannot be traversed by it. Its rich commerce invites the merchant ship, and rewards the navigator, but the steamer must hug its shores, and cannot profitably explore its ample bosom. It is the mission of man to hold the earth and its waters in subjection by machinery. By machinery he is destined to lighten the drudgery which at the dawn of creation fell upon his race. To accomplish this he has been endowed with genius and inventive power; and where the force of a thousand giants would be fruitless, these triumphantly prevail. They gave to the world steam as a motive power. It has proved inadequate to the wants of men, destructive to human life, and more costly than the interests of commerce can sustain.

A new motive power is demanded, and if the eyesight and the judgment can be relied upon, it has appeared. It is the most sublime development of force ever seen in machinery! It is exerted by that life-giving, elastic fluid, the atmosphere. It is drawn from that vast magazine through which the lightnings play, and is supplied from that unseen element which

sighs in the breeze and roars in the hurricane. We are not intimately acquainted with machinery, nor are we altogether ignorant of the principles of mechanical science. We know enough of both to form an intelligent judgment concerning the wonderful machine to which we allude, and which we have carefully examined. It is not, like most new inventions, presented in a mere model. It does not, like most new inventions, rest in bare experiment. Were these its conditions, the *Merchants' Magazine* would express no judgment concerning its utility, nor indulge in any speculations as to its supposed value. We should leave this talk to those who are supposed to be better acquainted with the science of mechanics, and with the practical value of untried inventions, than the editor of a commercial journal. We are not here called upon to perform this task.

A celebrated painter has said "Let my productions be subjected to the judgment of the whole world, but heaven deliver me from that of my own profession." This may not, in a majority of cases, prove to be a just apprehension; but it is quite certain that there is in every profession a conservative spirit, which clings to the knowledge of the past, and distrusts that which is new and untried. This is strikingly illustrated in the case of the steam-engine.

We all know that, at this time, the only mode in use for producing a rotary motion, from the reciprocating motion of the piston of a steam-engine, is by means of a crank. It is equally well known, that to enable the stationary engine to "pass the center," a ponderous fly-wheel is employed. Now it will hardly be credited, that both these methods were at first condemned by distinguished engineers, as utterly impracticable. In 1777 Mr. Stewart read a paper before the Royal Society in London, describing a method for obtaining a continued circular motion, for turning all kinds of mills, from the reciprocating motion of the steam-engine. This he proposed to effect by means of a complicated contrivance, which practice soon proved to be worthless. In the course of his remarks, he incidentally noticed the method of obtaining the circular motion by means of a crank, which, said he, "*occurs naturally in theory, but in practice would be impossible.*"

This paper was, by the council of the Society, referred to Mr. Smeaton, one of the most distinguished engineers of that age. He not only condemned the crank, but the fly-wheel also; and, in consequence of these views, very complicated and expensive means were adopted, to produce the desired rotary motion from the reciprocating motion of the piston, until, at length, from necessity, the crank and fly-wheel were adopted, and ever afterwards used.

We have mentioned these circumstances to show the wisdom of the course pursued by Captain Ericsson, in not subjecting his invention to public examination, until he could present it in a shape so conclusive, as to satisfy the judgment of practical men; and to trample down that carping, sneering criticism, with which envy and rivalry sometimes seek to strangle the productions of inspired genius. This, in our opinion, he has accomplished. We have, with great care, examined this machine; the principles and construction of which were fully explained to us by the distinguished inventor. It is alike remarkable for sublimity of conception and simplicity of detail. Like the forces of nature, its operations, although mighty, are gentle. Two machines upon this plan are now in operation at the works of Messrs. Hogg & Delamater—one of five horse, the other of sixty horse power.

The latter is the most extraordinary piece of machinery we have ever

seen. It has four cylinders. Two, of seventy-two inches in diameter, stand side by side. Over each of these is placed one much smaller. Within these are pistons, exactly fitting their respective cylinders, and so connected that those within the lower and upper cylinders move together. Under the bottom of each of the lower cylinders a fire is applied. No other furnaces are employed. Neither boilers nor water are used. The lower is called the working cylinder; the upper the supply cylinder. As the piston in the supply cylinder moves down, valves placed in its top open, and it becomes filled with cold air. As the piston rises within it, these valves close, and the air within, unable to escape as it came, passes through another set of valves, into a receiver, from whence it is to pass into the working cylinder, to force up the working piston within it. As it leaves the receiver to perform this duty, it passes through what is called the regenerator, which we shall soon explain, where it becomes heated to about four hundred and fifty degrees, and upon entering the working cylinder, it is further heated by the fire underneath. We have said the working cylinder is much larger in diameter than the supply cylinder. Let us, for the sake of illustration merely, suppose it to contain double the area. The cold air which entered the upper cylinder will, therefore, but half fill the lower one. In the course of its passage to the latter, however, we have said that it passes through a regenerator, and let us suppose, that as it enters the working cylinder, it has become heated to about four hundred and eighty degrees. At this temperature, atmospheric air expands to double its volume. The same atmospheric air, therefore, which was contained within the supply cylinder, is now capable of filling one of twice its size. With this enlarged capacity, it enters the working cylinder.

We will further suppose the area of the piston within this cylinder to contain a thousand square inches, and the area of the piston in the supply cylinder above, to contain but five hundred. The air presses upon this with a mean force, we will suppose, of about eleven pounds to each square inch; or in other words, with a weight of 5,500 pounds. Upon the surface of the lower piston, the heated air is, however, pressing upwards with a like force upon each of its one thousand square inches; or in other words, with a force of 11,000 pounds. Here, then, is a force which, after overcoming the weight above, leaves a surplus of 5,500 pounds, if we make no allowance for friction. This surplus furnishes the working power of the engine. It will be readily seen that after one stroke of its pistons is made, it will continue to work with this force, so long as sufficient heat is supplied to expand the air in the working cylinder to the extent stated; for so long as the area of the lower piston is greater than that of the upper, and a like pressure is upon every square inch of each, so long will the greater piston push forward the smaller, as a two-pound weight upon one end of a balance will be quite sure to bear down one pound placed upon the other. We need hardly say that after the air in the working cylinder has forced up the piston within it, a valve opens, and as it passes out, the pistons, by force of gravity, descend, and cold air again rushes into, and fills the supply cylinder, as we have before described. In this manner the two cylinders are alternately supplied and discharged, causing the pistons in each to play up and down, substantially as they do in the steam-engine.

We trust our readers will be able, from the brief description we have here attempted, to understand at least the general principles upon which this machine operates. Its cylinders draw their supply from the atmosphere.

The cylinders of the steam-engine are supplied by scalding vapor, drawn from hissing boilers. The caloric engine draws into its iron lungs, the same element which expands those of the most delicate child, and derives its motion and its power from that sustaining source upon which depends the existence of all animate life.

We have endeavored to explain the construction of the caloric engine. Its most striking feature consists in what is called by its inventor, the regenerator. Before describing this, we will present the grand idea upon which it is based. First let it be remembered that the power of the steam-engine depends upon the heat employed to produce steam within its boilers. It will be seen that from the very nature of steam the heat required to produce it, amounting to about 1,200°, is entirely lost by condensation the moment it has once exerted its force upon the piston. If, instead of being so lost, all the heat used in creating the steam employed could, at the moment of condensation, be reconveyed to the furnace, there again to aid in producing steam in the boilers, but a very little fuel would be necessary; none, in fact, except just enough to supply the heat lost by radiation. The reason is obvious. Let us suppose the steam has passed from the boiler, has entered the cylinder, has driven the piston forward, and is about to pass into the condenser, there to change its form, and be again converted into water. This steam, yet in the cylinder, and uncondensed, possesses all the heat it contained before passing out of the boiler. It has driven the piston forward, but in that effort it has lost no heat. That source of power it still contains.

Let it be supposed that the heat contained in the steam could, at the moment it is converted into water within the condenser, be saved, and by some device be again used to create steam from water within the boiler, with what exceeding cheapness could the power of the steam-engine be employed. But it is quite impossible thus to re-employ the heat of steam: it cannot thus be saved; and hence every effort to economize in this manner would be unavailing.

The propositions we have here advanced were, it appears, more than twenty-five years since familiar to the scientific mind of Captain Ericsson. He was at that early period deeply impressed with their importance; and regarding heat as the sole source of motive-power, was anxious to discover some element in which it could be so employed that, after giving motion to machinery, it should be returned to act over and over again for the same purpose. But little reflection was necessary to convince him that steam was not this element. It must consist of some permanent gas, and atmospheric air seemed admirably adapted to the purpose. Accordingly it was employed by him.

In a work entitled "A Dictionary of the Arts of Life and Civilization," published in London in 1833, the author, Sir Richard Phillips, mentions an engine which Captain Ericsson then had in operation in that city, as "his application of excited or rarefied air to the performance of those powers of machinery, which hitherto have been made to depend on the intervention of boiling water and its steam." The author further states that he "has, with inexpressible delight, seen the first model machine, of five horse-power, at work. With a handful of fuel applied to the very sensible medium of atmospheric air, and a most ingenious disposition of its differential powers, he beheld a resulting action, in narrow compass, capable of extension to as great forces as ever can be wielded or used by man."

The author adds:—"The principle of this new engine consists in this:

that the heat which is required to give motion to the engine at the commencement, is returned by a peculiar process of transfer, and thereby made to act over and over again, instead of being, as in the steam-engine, thrown into a condenser, or into the atmospheric, as so much waste fuel."

During the last nineteen years, Captain Ericsson has employed much of his time, and expended large amounts of money, in overcoming those practical difficulties which are ever stumbling blocks in the way leading to the successful development of a great principle in new machinery. This he has now achieved. The principle of his invention, as stated by Sir Richard Phillips, is still retained, embodied in that practical and complete form, which render this engine economical, absolutely safe, durable, simple in construction, and in action effective.

Let us now attempt to describe the regenerator, to which we have referred. Without this, the machine we examined would possess, in point of economy, no advantage over the best constructed steam-engine. With it, the advantages are incalculable. We have already fully illustrated the leading idea conceived by Captain Ericsson, of employing heat over and over again. To attain this is the object of the regenerator.

For the purpose of understanding this instrument our readers will bear in mind the construction and operation of the machine. We have before stated that atmospheric air is first drawn into the supply cylinder, from whence it is forced into a receiver, and that from this it proceeds towards the working cylinder, before reaching which it passes through the regenerator. This structure is composed of wire net, somewhat like that used in the manufacture of sieves, placed side by side, until the series attain a thickness, say of twelve inches. Through the almost innumerable cells, formed by the intersection of these wires, the air must pass, on its way to the working cylinder. In passing through these, it is so minutely subdivided that the particles composing it are brought into close contact with the metal which forms the wires. Now let us suppose, what actually takes place, that the side of the regenerator nearest the working cylinder is heated to a high temperature. Through this heated substance the air must pass before entering the cylinder, and in effecting this passage, it takes up, as is demonstrated by the thermometer, about 450° of the 480° of heat required, as we before stated, to double its volume. The additional 30° are communicated by the fire beneath the cylinder. The air has thus become expanded; it forces the piston upward; it has done its work—valves open—and the imprisoned air, heated to 480°, passes from the cylinder, and again enters the regenerator, through which it must pass before leaving the machine. We have said that the side of this instrument nearest the working cylinder is hot, and it should be here stated that the other side is kept cool, by the action upon it of the air entering in the opposite direction at each upstroke of the pistons. Consequently, as the air from the working cylinder passes out, the wires absorb its heat so effectually that, when it leaves the regenerator, it has been robbed of it all, except about 30°. In other words, as the air passes into the working cylinder it gradually receives from the regenerator about 450° of heat; and as it passes out, this is returned to the wires, and is thus used over and over, the only purpose of the fires beneath the cylinders being to supply the 30° of heat we have mentioned, and that which is lost by radiation and expansion. Extraordinary as this statement may seem, it is nevertheless incontrovertibly proved by the thermometer to be quite true.

When physical causes, productive of unexpected mechanical results, are carefully examined, they will always be found adequate to effect what, upon a cursory view might appear marvelous or incredible. Thus, after an examination of the reasons why this compact regenerator so effectually absorbs and transmits heat, its operation will cease to create wonder, although it cannot fail to excite profound admiration. We will state the causes of its efficiency.

The regenerator, contained in the sixty-horse engine we have examined, measures twenty-six inches in hight and width internally. Each disc of wire composing it contains 676 superficial inches, and the net has ten meshes to the inch. Each superficial inch, therefore, contains 100 meshes, which, multiplied by 676, give 67,600 meshes in each disc, and as 200 discs are employed, it follows that the regenerator contains 13,520,000 meshes, and consequently, as there are as many small spaces between the discs as there are meshes, we find that the air within is distributed in about 27,000,000 minute cells. Hence, it is evident, that nearly every particle of the whole volume of air, in passing through the regenerator, is brought into very close contact with a surface of metal, which heats and cools alternately. The extent of this surface, when accurately estimated, almost surpasses belief.

The wire contained in each disc is 1,140 feet long, and that contained in the regenerator is consequently 228,000 feet, or 41½ miles in length, the superficial measurement of which is equal to the entire surface of four steam-boilers, each forty feet long, and four feet in diameter; and yet the regenerator, presenting this great amount of heating surface, is only about two feet cube—less than $\frac{1}{1000}$ of the bulk of these four boilers.

Involved in this wonderful process, of the transfer and retransfer of heat is a discovery, which justly ranks as one of the most remarkable ever made in physical science. Its author, Captain Ericsson long since ascertained, and upon this is based the sublimest feature of his caloric-engine, that atmospheric air and other permanent gases, in passing through a distance of only six inches, in the fiftieth part of a second of time, are capable of acquiring, or parting with, upward of four hundred degrees of heat. He has been first to discover this marvelous property of caloric, without which, atmospheric air could not be effectively employed as a motive-power. The reason is obvious. Until expanded by heat, it can exert no force upon the piston. If much time were required to effect this, the movement of the piston would necessarily be so slow as to render the machine inefficient. Captain Ericsson has demonstrated, however, that heat may be communicated to, and expansion effected in, atmospheric air, with almost electric speed; and that it is, therefore, eminently adapted to give the greatest desirable rapidity of motion to all kinds of machinery.

We here close our imperfect description of a machine destined, as we believe, to work a revolution in the Commerce of the globe. It consumes but a very small proportion of the coal required for the steam-engine. It is entirely free from every element of explosion or of danger. Watchfulness is not imperatively required, as in the steam-engine. If left unattended, the worst that can happen is, that after exhausting the heat of its fires, and of its regenerator, it will stop. The one we examined, of sixty horse-power, has been run at full speed during twenty-four consecutive hours, consuming but nine hundred and sixty pounds of coal. After feeding the fires, it continues to run three hours without replenishment, and after withdrawing them from the grates, it operates with full power for the period of one hour, in

consequence of the astonishing action of its regenerator alone. We believe we have not, in the slightest degree, overrated the immense advantages of this engine, in point of economy and safety. If we have not, the world may well start with exultation. In magnitude of results, no invention can rank with it. The electric telegraph is one of great interest and value, and to him who reflects that the fierce lightning has by that process been tamed, and brought to the very lips of man, there to be freighted with human language, and sent abroad, to girdle the earth with thought, it becomes sublime. Still, it is greatly inferior, in practical importance, to the discovery of a motive-power such as we have attempted to describe. Human speculation fails adequately to estimate its influence upon the social and commercial relations of men and of nations. Its effects will naturally be first exerted upon the ocean. It is here that the value of such a power will be most sensibly felt and appreciated. Here it will soon become the strong arm and right hand of Commerce. It may be affirmed with confidence that, with engines upon this plan, a ship of two thousand tons can be propelled from San Francisco to China and back with less coal than is now required for an ordinary ocean steamer to cross the Atlantic.

The annals of the mechanic arts furnish no instance of an important invention having been brought before the public in so complete a form as to warrant its being carried out on a scale of the first magnitude from the outset. Ericsson's Caloric Engine will form an exception. A ship is now building for its reception by Messrs. Perrine, Patterson, and Stack, measuring twenty-two hundred tons burden, and her engines, which are being constructed by Messrs. Hogg & Delamater, comprise four working cylinders, each of 168 inches in diameter. We have visited both the ship-yard and the engine manufactory, and have inspected with more than ordinary interest the work on which more than four hundred men are now busily engaged. The ship is quite a remarkable structure, both in point of form and strength. The engines being placed in the center of the vessel admit of a better form of midship section than in steamships. Of this the builders have availed themselves by giving such a rise to the floor that strength and easy lines for passing through the water are appropriately combined. The lines of the ship at the entrance are singularly fine; and yet, by a very judicious application of the "wave line," as it is technically called, the bow possesses all the fullness requisite for a good sea-boat. The run is alike peculiar for easy lines, combined with stability and requisite bearing. The strength of floor, which is built entirely solid from stem to stern, surpasses anything we have seen in this country, noted as it is for producing the best ships in the world. In order to give additional strength to the ample timbers, the entire frame is banded by a double series of diagonal braces, of flat bars of iron, let into the timbers at intervals of about three feet, each series being riveted together at all the points of intersection. In addition to the ordinary central keelsons, there are six engine keelsons, bolted on the top of the floor timbers, for three-fourths of the length of the ship. On these keelsons the bed-plates of the engines are secured by bolts passing through the floor timbers. These bed-plates extend over the entire area occupied by the engines, and present a continuation of iron flooring, not witnessed in any steamship. The security thus attained is further enhanced by dispensing entirely with the numerous holes through the bottom of the vessel, which in steamers are necessary, and have often brought that class of vessels to a sinking condition. The engines being arranged in the center of the vessel, the decks are not cut off as in

steamers; and as the whole of the machinery is confined within a vertical trunk 76 feet long and 16 feet wide, ample space is left on each side of the ship for state-rooms along its entire length, with unbroken passages, fore and aft, on either side. The freight-deck also presents an unbroken area fore and aft, diminished only in width in the central part of the vessel. The coal being carried in the bottom, at each side of the engines, the fore and aft hold are clear for freight. The central arrangement of the engines involves, of necessity, a *central* crank, and thus the spar-deck presents an uninterrupted area, on both sides, the ordinary objectionable crank hatches being dispensed with. The slow combustion peculiar to the caloric engine renders the huge smoke funnel unnecessary. A short pipe to carry off the gases produced by the combustion in the furnaces takes its place in the caloric ship. The absence of steam in every form is sufficiently important in producing a more pleasant atmosphere than in steamers, but far more remarkable is the fact that the quantity of air which will be drawn out of the ship by the action of the supply cylinders of the engines, will exceed *sixty tons in weight* every hour! Captain Ericsson, in calling our attention to this fact, furnished us with a few figures that we feel certain our readers will need, as much as we did, to comprehend how so vast a ventilation is effected. Each supply piston presents an area of 102 superficial feet, with a stroke of six feet. 612 cubic feet of atmospheric air will therefore be drawn into the engine at each stroke; and when the engine makes fourteen strokes per minute, 8,568 cubic feet. But as there are four supply cylinders, they will, in this space of time, draw in 34,272 cubic feet; and in 60 minutes there will be thus circulated 2,056,320 cubic feet. The weight of atmospheric air is nearly 13¼ cubic feet to the pound; and thus it will be seen that 68 tons of air are drawn from the interior of the ship, through the engines, and passed off into the atmosphere, every hour. The effect of such an extraordinary system of ventilation, in purifying the atmosphere of the ship, is self-evident.

The simple construction of the caloric engine, and the small quantity of coal to be handled, will reduce the number of engineers and firemen, in the aggregate, to less than one-fourth the complement required for steamers. This great reduction in the number of men, whose duties are incompatible with strict cleanliness, will still further promote a purer state of atmosphere in caloric ships than in steamers. Again, as no smoke whatever is produced, when anthracite coal is employed, the masts and rigging of the caloric ship will be as as clean as in sailing vessels. We examined the combustion of the sixty-horse caloric-engine most critically. No smoke could be detected from it, and we arrived at the conclusion, that with such a slow combustion and easy firing smoke cannot possibly emanate from the anthracite consumed in the furnaces. Europe has scarcely any of this fuel, and in a national point of view, therefore, the introduction of the caloric-engine is important. We congratulate the commercial world that this invention is to be presented upon a scale and in a manner commensurate with its surpassing magnitude. The commercial part of this enterprise is conducted by Mr. JOHN B. KITCHING, a merchant of the city of New York, who has, for this purpose, associated with him a few gentlemen of wealth and high standing. It is fortunate that he possesses the practical intelligence which has enabled him to appreciate the advantages to be derived from the introduction of this new motive power. He at once concurred with Captain Ericsson, that its development in practice should so thoroughly test its utility and value, that no

doubt could thereafter be entertained concerning either. So far as human scrutiny and foresight can penetrate, this invention promises to be the richest boon to Commerce and civilization yet attained by the application to machinery of those natural forces created by Omnipotence for the benefit of our race. Upon the manner of its first introduction to the world, will, in a great degree depend the time within which it will be made generally available in practice. Mr. Kitching will be remembered as the man whose sound judgment and perfect self-reliance have so contributed to present the colorie-engine to the public, that a second trial will not be required to warrant its universal adoption.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

Some years ago the translator of the present article on the subject of the Commerce of the Port of Trebizond, on the southern shore of the Black Sea, during a visit which he had occasion to make there, availed himself of it to procure some details of the trade which passes through that part to Georgia and Persia, as well as with the interior of that portion of Asia Minor of which Trebizond is the principal port of entry. Those details were, soon afterwards, offered for publication to the *Merchants' Magazine*, in which they appeared.

With the increased intercourse of the people of the United States with the Ottoman Empire, as merchants, or as simple travelers for pleasure or instruction, it is presumed that any information made public on the subject of the trade of Asiatic and European Turkey will be perused with interest by the commercial public. The absence of a regular Commercial Bureau at Washington, to which such communications might be made, for the purpose of having them laid before the public in the form of annual "Commercial Reports" to Congress, renders this means of publicity the more valuable; and with this object in view, the following later details of the trade which formed the subject of the previous notes are now offered for insertion in the *Merchants' Magazine*.

COMMERCE OF TREBIZOND IN 1851.*

During a period of six years the imports and exports of Trebizond have gone on increasing, and the transit Commerce has also augmented in an equal proportion. In 1846 some 30,000 packages of goods were disembarked there for Persia and Georgia, valuing about fifty millions of Turkish piastres, of some four cents each, making $2,000,000 of our own currency. In 1851, the merchandise which arrived at Trebizond amounted to 59,003 packages, valuing 182,000,000 of piastres.† The expenses of 30,000 packages, from the period of their departure from Constantinople up to their being put into warehouses in Tabriz in Persia, were, on account of the dear-

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* Translated from the "Journal de Constantinople."

† The Turkish piastre fluctuates in value, and is governed by the sale at which bills of exchange on London are sold at Constantinople. At this date, April, 1852, the pound sterling is, in specie, (gold and silver,) 117 piastres, and in *Caimeks* (paper currency of the Sultan) 120 piastres. The Spanish dollar values 25 piastres in specie, and 26 and 27 piastres in paper.

ness of transportation, about 15 per cent on the whole amount—say some 7,500,000 piastres on the value of 50,000,000 piastres. On this basis, which is believed to be exact, the expenses of 59,003 packages, worth 182,000,000 piastres, should amount to 27,000,000 piastres. It has been determined upon by the Turkish Government to construct a good wagon road from Trebizond to Erzerrow,* a town of some importance, not far from the Persian frontier, which project, for the present, has been deferred, and the preceding statements of the trade which would pass over it is certainly sufficient to serve as an inducement for its future execution. Besides the preceding, it should also be added that the Commerce in transit to Persia pays to the Turkish Government a duty of 3 per cent, which makes a sum of 5,500,000 piastres per annum. In a few years, should the trade increase in the ratio of the past six years, this revenue would quite suffice to cover the expenses of the proposed route.

The writer next adds, in behalf of the Commerce of France with Trebizond, "In the general table of the trade of Trebizond, which we publish, we are pained to observe a point which struck us in 1846, that France takes no part in this trade, whilst some forty years ago the Commerce of France predominated in the Levant."

"The steamboats which now go to Trebizond belong wholly to the Turkish, English, and Austrian marines." After some expressions of confidence that the present President of the "Republic of France" will take proper measures to restore the lost trade of Marseilles, he continues: "The goods imported into Trebizond under the flags of different nations for the consumption of the interior of the country and those destined for Persia, amount to 243,342,000 piastres, or $9,793,680, and the exports to 110,471,000 piastres, or $4,418,840—making a difference between them of some 132,871,000 piastres, or $5,314,840, which is explained in the following table.

The most important portion of this trade belongs to the Turkish marine, next to this to the Austrian, and next to the British. The first imports into Trebizond 132,730,000 piastres, or $5,309,200; the second 72,704,000 piastres, $2,908,160; and the third 35,406,000 piastres, or $1,416,240. The other nations engaged in the trade may be classed as follows: Greece, the two Danubian Provinces of Turkey, one Moldavia and Wallachia, the seven Ionian Islands, and Russia.

In a general recapitulation of the same, we find 99 sailing vessels, and 73 steamers, together having 111,352 tons.

The arrivals in 1851 were as follows:—

Ottoman sailing vessels, 71; steamers, 30; in all, 101; of 58,580 tons, and 13,380 horse-power, and importing goods of the value of 132,730,000 piastres, or $5,309,200.

Austrian steamers, of 7,800 horse-power, and 23,300 tons, and importing 72,708,000 piastres, or $2,908,160 of merchandise.

British sailing vessels, 6; steamers, 17; in all, 23; of 4,994 horse-power, and 15,742 tons, with 35,406,000 piastres, or $1,416,240 of merchandise.

Greek vessels, 9; of 1,698 tons, and 1,355,000 piastres, or $54,200 of merchandise.

Danubian vessels, 7; of 1,004 tons, and 550,000 piastres, or $21,000 of merchandise.

Ionian vessels, 3; of 396 tons, and 257,000 piastres, or $10,800 of merchandise.

Russian vessels, 2; of 382 tons, and with 340,000 piastres, or $13,600.

French vessels, 1; of 350 tons, in ballast.

* The failure of this *determination* is attributed at Constantinople to the influence of Russia, which is, very naturally, desirous of having the transit trade of Persia pass through Georgia. The projected road was begun at the instance of the British Embassy at Constantinople.

Making totally 90 sailing vessels and 78 steamers, or in all 172 vessels of every nation; which imported into the single port of Trebizond goods for internal consumption and transit to Georgia and Persia to the amount of 243,342,000 piastres, or $9,733,680.

The departures for Trebizond in 1851 were—

Ottoman sailing vessels, 51; steamers, 30; in all, 81; of 16,380 horse-power, and exporting merchandise to the value of 26,686,000 piastres, and specie 20,691,000 piastres, or $1,895,080.

Austrian steamers, of 7,800 horse-power, and 23,330 tons, with merchandise of the value of 14,301,000 piastres, and specie 13,424,000 piastres, or $1,109,280.

British vessels, 5; steamers, 17; in all, 22; of 4,994 horse-power, and 15,300 tons, and merchandise to the value of 11,732,000 piastres, in specie, 12,017,000 piastres, or $949,960.

It must be remembered that the specie destined for Constantinople, (for all of this Commerce is between Trebizond and Constantinople,) indicated, refers entirely to the merchandise in transit to and from Georgia and Persia; whilst the following is a statement of the local Commerce, and that for the consumption of the interior of the country of which Trebizond is the first, in 1851:—

Ottoman steamers, 3,751,000 piastres, or $150,040 in specie.
Austrian steamers, 2,804,000 piastres, or $152,160 in specie.
British steamers, 3,106,000 piastres, or $124,240 in specie.
Greek vessels, 9; 1,698 tons; 116,000 piastres, or $4,640 in goods.
Danubian vessels, 7; 1,004 tons; 110,000 piastres, or $4,400 in goods.
Ionian vessels, 3; 396 tons; in ballast.
Russian vessels, 2; 382 tons; in ballast.
French vessels, 1; 352 tons; a cargo of copper worth 1,726,000 piastres, or $69,500.
Making, in total, 110,471,000 piastres, or $4,417,840, in 78 sailing vessels and 78 steamers; or total number, 151.

It must be also here added that the great difference which exists between the amount of imports and exports is caused by the circumstance that, for a good portion of the goods which go into Persia, the returns are made to Europe—that is to say, by Tiflis, where they are converted into bills of exchange on St. Petersburg or on London. The reader will remember that Georgia now forms a province of Russia.

During the year 1851 the different steamers carried from Trebizond 17,300 passengers to Constantinople, and this part of their business is a source of no inconsiderable gain to them. Seven large steam frigates form this line; two are steam frigates belonging to the Sultan of Turkey, each 450 horse-power; two belong to the Ottoman Steam Navigation Company, of 250 and 350 horse-power; two Austrian steamers, of the "Lloyd Austrian," of 260 and 350 horse-power; and one English steamer of 300 horse-power.

There arrived at Trebizond, from Constantinople, England, and Trieste, (in smaller quantities from the latter place,) 59,003 packages of diverse merchandise in *transit*, for Persia, valuing 182,000,000 piastres, or $7,280,000.

Trebizond received from Persia for Constantinople 14,756 packages of goods of coarse kinds, of which 3,201 were bales of silk, valuing 25,000,000 piastres, or $1,000,000; the remainder consisted in gall nuts, tumbekis, Persian tobacco, for the *narguila*, (a water-pipe,) saffron, wax, almonds, leeches, pipe sticks, shawls of different kinds, carpets, &c., &c.

Trebizond imported grains—

Indian corn from the Danube.....kilos (bushels)	390
Wheat from the Danube and Odessa.....	122,000
Barley.....	29,200
Oats.....	3,200

Salt may be imported there to about 63,000 kilos, of 30 okes each (82 lbs.)

Among the imports belonging to the local trade of Trebizond, or for transit to Persia and Georgia, all carried on horses' or mules' backs, were, in 1851, 6,424 cases of sugar in loaves, (English and Dutch,) and 630 large barrels of sugar, also English and Dutch, of which three-fourths were in loaves, and one-fourth in powder.

There were, in 1851, 6,729 packages of *Tumbekie* of Persia, and 57,976 packages of merchandise for this country.

The preceding gives an idea of the extent and importance of the trade open of the principal ports of the Black Sea, and yet contains but few of the details needed of the nature of the same. The notes, heretofore furnished to the *Merchants' Magazine*, may be considered as a correct exposition of the different articles of import and export, of which the trade is composed.

The steamers, herein mentioned, all trade at Sinope and Samsoon on their way to and from Trebizond, and besides the great number of passengers which they take in or discharge there, the merchandise required at these places forms no inconsiderable portion of their gains.

Samsoon and Sinope receive goods for the consumption of the interior of Asia Minor, and the former may be regarded as the port of Mosul and the chief places in Mesopotamia, even as far as Bagdad.

An immense quantity of English cotton goods pass through them for the interior. These are generally purchased at Constantinople by native merchants, in small quantities, and shipped by them to the Black Sea.

The Commerce of Great Britain in the Black Sea was, in 1830, quite insignificant, and there were some apprehensions entertained here at the time of the negotiation of the present treaty of the United States with Turkey, that American Commerce would greatly rival English interests.

It was supposed that, besides the introduction of American commodities into Southern Russia and the ports of the Black Sea, American vessels would take an active part in the carrying trade of that sea.

In a few years after the negotiation of the treaty, several American vessels went annually to Odessa, but this soon ceased. The return cargoes of these vessels were mostly hides, and there were even instances of rye being shipped at that period from Odessa to the United States. This has, of course, long ceased to be the case, and the trade with Odessa is now very inconsiderable. Only one vessel under the flag of the United States has, as yet, entered the Danube.

This occurred in 1843, and the captain was welcomed with many evidences of good feeling for his country, by the authorities of Wallachia and Moldavia.

Twenty years ago, the British trade with Trebizond, Persia, and Georgia, was almost nothing. Its present prosperity is due to the agency of the British consul at Erzeroom, Mr. Brant. This gentleman, an old merchant in the Levant, settled, as vice-consul, at Trebizond, and commenced there the introduction of English goods. In view of extending his operations to Persia and Georgia, he recommended to his government his appointment at Erzeroom, and the establishing of vice-consuls at Samsoon, Trebizond, Bat-

toom, and at Kaiseriych, in the interior, which being done, the fruits of their most valuable reports on the nature, extent of the produce, and demands of this country, are seen in the very extensive and valuable trade which now exists.

It may be added here that Mr. Brant, and each of his vice-consuls, are themselves engaged in Commerce.

In view of the increased relations of the United States with Turkey, and its probable future intercourse with Persia, it appears that the government at home could not evince a greater interest in the Commerce of our citizens than by establishing a commercial-consular agent at Trebizond. It can scarcely be expected that any commercial house in New York or Boston, patriotic as our merchants have always shown themselves to be, should send an agent to that place, *pro bono publico*, as such an agent would certainly be; and this seems to be especially the duty of a government, which derives its chief support from the Commerce of the nation. Such a *public* agent, if a commercial man, (and none other should receive the appointment,) would be able to explore the field thus open to the manufacturing and the mechanical industry of the people of the United States; and it would not be, it is hoped, an indiscretion to add the suggestion that he be allowed by Congress a salary of $1,000 or $1,500 a year, until the advantages, or the inutility, of the agency could be ascertained. The coffee, sugar, and rum of America supplies the greater part of the vast provinces of Turkey in Europe and Asia; the cotton manufactories of *New* England are becoming the honest rivals of those of *Old* England; and it is not unreasonable to hope that they may again soon resume their place in the country where their name has been fraudulently or by stratagem assumed by English manufacturers, who forge the American stamps on their own cotton goods, so as to profit by the reputation which they had made for themselves.

In connection with the foregoing, occasion is here taken to mention the injustice shown to the common wools (and there are none others) of Turkey by the tariff now existing in the United States. "Free Trade" certainly, as a maximum, does not consist in commercial rules by which agriculture is to be benefited *versus* Commerce, and *vice versa*. The farmer does not "plow the earth" to the disadvantage of the sailor, who "plows the main" for a livelihood, and the interference of a government in behalf of either is an injurious partiality. Left to their own resources, an honest rivalry should regulate these two forms of public industry. Nor, indeed, it would seem, should manufactures be injured by the partiality felt for agriculture. This theory the writer would extend to all countries and to all climates.

Turkey produces an immense quantity of common coarse wool, which seldom costs more than eight cents per pound. No better quality of wool is raised in any part of Turkey, except the wool, or hair, of the white goats of Angora. It can, therefore, never become a rival to the wools raised in the United States, (if, indeed, so ungenerous an apprehension is entertained,) and should not be considered as such; and yet, in this light, Turkey wools are taxed by the present tariff, with but little advantage to the American grower, and greatly to the disadvantage of the manufacturer, while the French, English, and German cloths are introduced at a rate of duty unequal to the prohibition put upon the raw material.

In England, "things are managed better;" the manufacturer has no obstacles thrown in his way of making cloths to compete with those imported, if this, indeed, is practicable, and for the supply of foreign markets. And

with the cheap water-power to propel the looms of thrifty New England, what nation in the world is better qualified for the economical manufacture of cloth, if permitted by the tariff? With a duty of 1 per cent on all common wools, they are freely introduced into England, where they are manufactured into cloths for the people of the United States, cheaper than they can now make them for themselves, notwithstanding the facilities given them so bounteously by nature. This, under a better and more liberal tariff, would be different, and not only could the manufacturer soon make cloths for the people of the United States as cheap as they now can purchase them from the English importer, but export them to Turkey and elsewhere in return for the raw material; and this, too, without any wrong done to the American wool grown at home.

As by the liberal nature of the "Free Trade" system of the Ottoman government, all American goods and merchandise are admitted into Turkey on an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent, the excessive duty on the raw staple of the trade with the United States is considered an injustice and want of reciprocity. The native merchants of Constantinople have made an appeal to the Sultan's government, requesting it to use its influence with the government of the United States, to make a change in its tariff in their favor, and the subject may be soon laid before Congress, with what result yet rests to be learned. J. P. B.

CONSTANTINOPLE, April, 1852.

Art. III.—THE DIVINE USE OF COMMERCE.

"There's a divinity that shapes our ends
Rough-hew them how we will."

In the rise and fall of nations we behold the comprehensive and perpetual tendency of Divine purpose and power. His guiding cloud, somber or effulgent, is appointed to teach individuals and communities when to advance and when to pause. The most superficial survey of history is sufficient to teach us that Providence exercises an unceasing superintendence over human affairs, and that the consequences of both public acts and private intentions are subjected to permanent laws, the immediate sequences of which may not be clearly seen, but the ultimate result of which can never be wrong.

Two grand principles were recognized and proclaimed by the better minds of pagan antiquity, namely, the immortal might of man's aspirations, and his eternal progressiveness under the beneficent care of Providence.

Touching the first, Sophocles, in Antigone, expressed as follows the deep sense native to every emulative soul:—"Many things are wonderful, and nothing more wonderful than man: he can pass beyond the foaming sea, scudding through the waves as they roll around him; he wears away the wearied and inexhaustible earth, the highest of the goddesses, by means of the plow, which yearly turns it up by the strength of horses; and he catches also the tribe of any birds, casting lines around them, and all kinds of fierce beasts, and the race dwelling under the sea, with meshy well-woven nets; and by his artifice he entraps the wild beasts traversing the deserts,

and leads the shaggy-maned horse by the yoke round his neck, and the untamed bull of the mountains; and he learns oratory and perception quick as the wind, and civil polity, and is able to extricate himself from every difficulty, to escape being exposed to the air and keen driving showers of the barren and homeless hills; he comes upon nothing of the future without being able to extricate himself: from death alone he can effect no escape."

Again, it is clear that a belief in an especial protection from on high has ever been deemed indispensible to ennoble human motives, and furnish adequate support in time of danger. Cicero says the immortal gods provide not only for the general necessities of men, but also for those of each man in particular, extending their protection not only to whole continents and cities, but also to each of their inhabitants; so that such men as Curius, Fabricius, Metellus, Cato, Scipio, and Lælius, never rose to their great merit without divine aid. Hence it was, he continues, that all the poets, and especially Homer, have assigned certain divinities to their heroes, in order to accompany them, and assist them in all their adventures, as in the case of Ulysses, Diomedes, Agamemnon, and Achilles. And that disposition to regard men as the instruments of a supernatural power to fulfil divine decrees, is well represented in the dying words of Patroclus to Hector: "Rejoice now, Hector, for Jove has given you victory." The ancients did not think that it derogated from the glory of a hero to ascribe his triumphs to an over-ruling power. Sylla imputed all his success to fortune; thinking, says Plutarch, that such an opinion added an air of greatness and even of divinity to his actions. Zenophon records the argument of Socrates in combating Aristodemus, who held an opinion like modern sceptics, that the Deity was above condescending to take any interest in the concerns of men. Sophocles, in a magnificent passage of the Electra, paints the impotent prosperity of the wicked. And with what force and majesty does the genius of Demosthenes proclaim like truth to his desponding countrymen! "Truly, O Athenians, I should regard Philip as a most formidable and overwhelming advesary, if I believed him acting justly; but it is not possible, O Athenians, that a power should be permanent which is marked with injustice, and perjury, and falsehood.

Diodorus affirmed that piety towards heaven is essential to the magnanimity of a nation; and Plato said, with equal justice, that the spirit of reverence is a better inheritance than gold. Plotimus taught that God should be praised in the things we understand, and admired in those which we understand not; while Socrates, catching some rays of still brighter inspiration from afar, felt that "a mortal nature could never rise to such greatness as to despise the force of animals of superior power, to pass over the sea, to build cities, to found states, to observe the heavens, to behold the circles of the stars, and the courses of the sun and the moon, their times of rising and setting, their eclipses, and return of the equinoxes, and the solstices, and the pleiades, the winter and summer, the winds and the showers, and the destructive path of the lightning, and to immortalize the events of the world by monuments, unless there were indeed a divine spirit in the soul from which it possessed such knowledge; that, therefore, man passes not to death but to immortality; and that instead of experiencing a loss, he will become capable of pure enjoyment, independent of a mortal body, unalloyed and void of every uneasiness; and when once delivered from this prison, he will arrive where all things are without labor, without

groans, without old age, where there is constant peace and calm, a state of contemplation and loving wisdom, in which one was not to address a multitude, but truth itself, which flows round on all sides."

Thus we see that the nations of old were conscious of immortality, and of an overruling Providence. But we have a more sure word of testimony unto which we will do well to take heed, until the day dawn and the day-star arise. We are the creatures of a moment, but the heirs of eternity. Neither ourselves, our acts, nor our God are accidents. No race or nation, art or science, discovery or invention, but is divinely subordinated, in its right time and place to the accomplishment of its particular mission. There is much meaning in Baxter's axiom: "Man proposeth, but God disposeth." Let us apply this thought to human pursuits in general, and to Commerce in particular.

Why did not Jehovah plant the Jewish institutes on the steppes of Asia, and unfold the diviner splendors of Christianity in the central solitudes of America? The omnipotent and omniscient God is the last to waste his strength or misemploy his wisdom in acts which are incompatible with the highest good of the greatest number of his creatures. The order of his government, and the disbursement of his resources, are especially designed to teach us the grace of common sense, so that, while we devoutly implore heavenly assistance, we may discreetly husband its earthly use.

The celestial guide which rose on the view of the wise men in the east, led them westward towards the sea, and has ever since been the pole-star of human progress. Civilization has always moved "o'er the western main," while Commerce has been its chief instrument aad perpetual channel. The grandest throne of power is water, not land. The banner nation of the world, whose ascendency is most pervading and complete, is the one in whose hand lies the scepter of the seas. All civilized people have ever lived where great rivers formed free avenues to thought, and the grandeur of oceans was at once the field and nutriment of national power. There is no wealth, material, mental, or moral, that is not identified with exchange. Without diversity, there can be no development; and out of the widest difference, the highest and most harmonious unity is a natural result. This is made legitimate by the law of God, instances of which appear at every advance of human progress.

All the active races of antiquity occupied the shores of the Mediterranean. Its maritime climate, blending oceanic softness with continental rigor, teemed with the densest and most diversified population. Cities studded its coasts; fleets plowed its billows; mental and commercial wealth coursed along its mirror of all grandeur for ages, when as yet the pagan Olympus reflected in its depths, and the goddess of beauty emerging therefrom, were the only faith and hope those vast multitudes enjoyed. But a new era dawned with a splendor that eclipsed mythologic fables and Jewish traditions. At the eastern extremity of this central sea, at an equal distance from the three continents, and in the exact center of the known world, God raised the sublimest curtain of his purpose, and unfolded the glory of redemption. The promised land was first selected as the sanctuary of religious truth during the reign of polytheism, and as the theater for the preliminary wonders of salvation, in order to prepare its way from afar among men, and subordinate to its service the most intellectual and active influences of which history preserves a memorial, and mankind has enjoyed the fruits.

God and the whole destinies of nations are sometimes most manifestly on

board a single ship, struggling with adverse elements far out on the deep. Take a well-known illustration. About thirty years after the ascension of Christ, a vessel from the east came into the harbor of Syracuse, and, after a delay of three days, proceeded towards the great western port of her destination. Suppose there had been at that time an enterprising commercial journal published at Puteoli. Suppose a news-boat were kept on the look-out, and a telegraph from Rhegium, the southern city of the peninsula, transmitted every arrival to the editor's chair. Word comes, is put on the exchange bulletin and published to the common eye: "Ship Castor and Pollux, from Alexandria, Captain Zebulon, is coming up, with a cargo of wheat consigned to Barter, Gain, and Co., of this city, and lot of prisoners under Colonel Julius, bound to the imperial dungeons of Rome." Probably there might have been a little talk about the wheat in the Mark Lane of that day, but who reflected on the real import of that simple and common-place dispatch? Who had the profound sagacity to see concentrated in that single, transient craft, the wealth of Africa, genius of Asia, and power of Europe! In that hold lay the sifted treasure of the primitive university and granary of nations; every seed of which, to the end of the earth, is predestined to spring with a potency and productiveness that will shake like Lebanon. That citizen of Tarsus, the central city of the central continent, with fetters now corroding his flesh and eating like aspics to his soul, has absorbed into his magnificent nature the solidity of the north and the splendor of the south; a sea of glass mingled with fire; all treasures that genius can create or industry acquire; with the superaddition of that infinite superiority which grace alone confers; and all this aggregate of mental and spiritual endowment he bears in bonds to the throne of the Cesars, that thence he may rend the chains of the world. Each separate link wet with his tears or tinged with his blood, like the iron that pierced his Lord, scattered in fragments by the outburst of latent divinity, shall give hope to the despairing everywhere, the highest freedom to both faculty and limb. European power has its fitting representative in the centurion, first cowering in the storm and finding safety in the wisdom and forbearance of the piety it persecutes, and then, perchance, exulting in the arbitrary might of martial force, by which another victim is added to the lust of dominion and the pride of kings.

Christianity came to Rome at the auspicious hour, when all antecedent powers had been wrought into effective instrumentalities for the widest and most rapid diffusion of the gospel. With pickax and spade, her legions had been toiling for centuries to construct spacious roads, by means of which apostles might compass the ends of the earth. Whatever may be the selfish aim of man, his skill and power are predestined perpetually to construct improved supports to the weary wings of the heavenly dove, as she speeds from shore to shore with the tidings of love and peace. She was first pulled in at the window of the ark, because that craft admitted no other rest; but the ships Solomon laid under contribution to religious purposes were differently rigged, and the celestial emblem voyaged at mast-head. In modern times, Providence evermore simplifies natural elements, and recombines their potencies in almost supernatural energy, so as to send the sanctuary of all ennobling influence, "tramp, tramp, along the earth, splash, splash, across the sea;" and that dove, quickened and fortified by the contact, flies, as the lightning darts, from clime to clime.

Look at the seat of this society, its surrounding facilities, sublime duties, and cheering results. Old Johnny, the Britisher, had a pretty respectable

son, called "Jonathan America." At what time, and for what "manifest destiny" was this youngster born? A few facts connected with our own history will yet further illustrate the divine use of Commerce.

The tide of civilization had flowed from the Euphrates to the Thames, accumulating all diverse elements as it swept from clime to clime, from sea to ocean, a mighty amalgam, to be recompounded on a yet remoter and grander field, for a sublimer use. On the 13th of May, 1607, an English colony was planted at Jamestown, Virginia. These were aristocratic Cavaliers, sent out under the auspices of a decorated knight, Sir Walter Raleigh. In 1620, a colony of democratic Roundheads, lead by a parson, also departed for the new world, and in the north, like their predecessors of the south, found a domain well fitted for their use. Neither as the special paradise of dignified laziness, nor as the asylum of privileged bigotry, had God made this continent. In 1609, Hendrick Hudson, an Anglo-Dutchman, in the service of the East India Company of Holland, sailed from the Texel for the discovery of the north-west passage to India, and landed on the North River Flats, a long way above Manhattan Island. This grand blunder won from the States-general a patent for the exclusive trade of the Hudson, and in 1621 this metropolis of New-Netherlands was built. About the time Hans Hendrick accomplished his commission so well, the London Company directed their chief to explore some stream running from the north-west, for the purpose of finding a passage to the Pacific Ocean. Accordingly, Admiral John Smith the first sailed up the Chickahominy as far as he could in flat-boats, and ran into a nest of Indians, who did themselves the pleasure to kill and scalp the whole expedition, save the immortal John, and would have served him ditto, but for the tender mercies of Her Royal Highness, Mademoiselle de Pocahontas. Never mind; sublime purposes are struggling into fulfillment. A succession of colonies are planted, national independence is declared, and both civil and religious freedom are won. Now we behold the ultimate design of Providence more clearly unfolding. The chivalrous south and puritanic north have sprung into the matured development of hereditary character and local prepossession. From the first, and always, they are antagonistic in spirit and pursuit. Bring an ultra Northener, with his one idea, and an ultra Southerner, with his one idea, suddenly together, with no mitigating conservatism between, and they instantly explode, to the great damage of contemptible littleness on both sides. But the Dutchman has *vis inertia* enough in his make to moderate anything; and Infinite Wisdom put him at the outset in exactly the right situation to the primitive elements and prospective relations of all this mighty land and conglomerated population. The Hollanders were the pioneers and masters of Commerce on every ocean; and the emporium of trade they founded on our shore, God designed to become the center of all commercial enterprises amongst mankind.

The third President of the United States, perhaps least solicitous in behalf of maritime prosperity, did most to promote it. Mainly by his influence, Louisiana was purchased, and thus we came in possession of the Mississippi, with its myriad tributaries. Simultaneously with this, an anomalous craft moves out amidst distrust and jeers from the foot of Courtlandt-street, to find its strange way against wind and tide, impelled by a momentum hitherto impracticable or unknown. Why the steamboat at this time, and in this place? Young and feeble as is our trade, we own more inland navigation than all the world besides, and divinely directed genius has given us

at the right moment the mighty instrument of aggrandizement we most of all need. These rivers of God, rendered fruitful by Fulton's creation, shall accumulate our greatest wealth, and guaranty our firmest liberties. The little North and the little South may prate in vain; for when their impotent impertinence demands, "Shall we rend this national compact?" a power infinitely grander and more conservative than they, the great West, towers like a Colossus amidst pigmies, and exclaims in thunder, "No! you shall not divide the Union!" Every puff of the tiniest engine that winds its way to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, answers to the merry cry of seamen weighing anchor on board the hugest craft at New Orleans or New York, "No you shall not break a single strand of the triple cable of patriotism, religion, and Commerce, destined to bind all America in one grand brotherhood!"

The exact middle of the nineteenth century arrives, and finds two startling and significant events transpiring at the same moment. The first is a thrilling cry from the far-off Pacific, resounding everywhere, "Gold, gold!" Why then, and in that particular region? Because the old antagonists, Feudalism and Freedom, are in the arena, hot for the fight, and portentous clouds darken the scene. Most opportunely, that which for six thousand years has been kept hid, is suddenly revealed. The combatants are charmed into peace, or disertated by spectators. The Anglo-Scotchico-Irishico-Frenchico, Dutchico-Americans, who will go to the mouth of the cannon, or the mouth of hell, any time, for a dollar, rush after the glittering prize, and in self-defense plant free institutions on the Pacific, as on the Atlantic coast. Thus will they make the mightiest mountain terrace of our continent the well-proportioned pedestal to Liberty's central altar for all mankind.

The other fact to which we alluded was, that, just preceding this new outbreak of emigration, one who for many years has been identified with Fulton's invention and sphere, laid the keel of the first successful steamship ever registered in this port. She was not dispatched for Havre, or Bremen, or Liverpool, but for New Orleans. Why? Because the "Crescent City" was predestined to form the first link in the most stupendous chain of Commerce under heaven. Where is the mind capacious enough, and armed with prophetical audacity enough, to conceive and announce the magnitude of Western trade in America, as it shall swell and waft towards its first home and latest seat of predominant power, New York?

But the past is a warning as well as incentive. The republic of Venice built itself upon maritime prosperity, grew rich, forgot God, and perished. Italy refused to use the priceless treasure of heavenly truth as its Author requires, and her wharves, like her altars, are rottenness only. The Spanish Peninsula imitated the fatal example, and her national power sank like lead in the deep with the shattered Armada. The supreme sway of the seas passed into the hands of England the very year her sons first settled in America. Since then, filial emulation has fully shared that glorious supremacy; and now the word of God and the welfare of nations is intrusted entirely to the devout fidelity of those speaking our mother-tongue, and swaying almost the entire tonnage of the world. Let us fear lest Tyre shall be at once our type and history. If we are loyal to our Maker, our growth can never outrun our stability; but if we are recreant to our highest duty, prosperity will surely become our speedy ruin.

Art. IV.—COFFEE, AND THE COFFEE TRADE.*

The *Coffee-Tree* or *Coffea Arabica* is an evergreen shrub, with oblong pulpy berries, which are first of a bright red, but afterwards become purple. It is stated by Niebuhr to have been brought from Abyssinia, to Yemen by the Arabs, from a country similar to their own plains and mountains. By that people it has for ages been cultivated in the hilly range of Jabal, in a healthy temperate climate, watered by frequent rains, and abounding in wells and water-tanks. A combination of circumstances seems to favor the cultivation of coffee in Arabia, which can hardly be attained elsewhere. Frequent rains, and a pure and cloudless sky causing an almost uninterrupted flood of light, communicate an excessive stimulus to all the functions of vegetation, and are causes of the perfect elaboration of those delicate principles on which the aroma of the coffee is dependent.

The seed consists of much horny albumen and a peculiar principle or alkaloid, termed *cafeine*, which is identical with the active principle of tea, *theine*, as well as with *paraguaine*, the alkaloid of the Paraguay Tea. The seed is used in a raw state in medicine; but when roasted, it forms the well-known coffee of Commerce. The coffee-plant begins to produce fruit when two or two-and-a-half years old; but the quality of the seeds from young stems is not so good as that from stems four or five years old. The size and color of the bean (as the inner part of the seed is called) vary considerably, those from the West Indies being larger than those from the East.

Much more depends upon the manner of roasting and making the coffee than upon the quality of the bean. The superiority of French coffee, in the preparation of which little or no Mocha coffee is used, proves this position. The taste of raw coffee is somewhat sweetish; but the application of heat in the process of roasting produces important changes. The bean increases to nearly twice the original size, while it loses about a third of its weight: a powerful and agreeable odor is evolved, and a large quantity of empyreumatic oil, which appears in small drops on the surface, is formed along with a bitter principle, probably by an alteration in the cafeine and of the saccharine matter. The roasting should take place in a close revolving iron cylinder, over a clear but moderate fire, and should not be carried too far: when the beans have acquired a light chestnut color, the roasting should be discontinued. The beans are then to be cooled quickly by being tossed up into the air, and the grinding, or rather rough pounding, should be performed in a covered mortar or mill. The drink should be prepared from it as soon as possible, by infusion, which is preferable, unless some apparatus be employed by which a kind of decoction is made in a close vessel. About half an ounce of coffee-powder should be used for every eight ounces (half a pint) of water. In Britain the roasting is generally carried too far; and the subsequent partsof the process, instead of being performed immediately, are often postponed for days or even weeks, by which the aroma is dissipated; when made, the liquid is generally deficient in strength and clearness. The employment of white of egg or fish-skin to clarify is decidedly objectionable: clearness is thus purchased, but at the expense of the strength.

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* For articles on this subject see *Merchants' Magazine* for July and August, 1850, (vol. xxiii., pages 59 and 172,) also the number for December, 1851, (vol. xxv., page 690, &c.) For statistics of imports and exports see "Coffee," in index of each volume.

It was an endeavor to establish an impr oved mode of roasting coffee that led to the death of Mr. Dakin, of London in 1848. His plan consisted in placing the coffee in a cylinder lined with silver, and in inclosing this cylinder within a cellular steam oven, or cylinder, patented by other parties. The heat attained within the oven was very great, and the metal of the oven was not sound enough to resist its action; an explosion ensued, with a fatal result. The silver or silvered cylinder was an intended means of retaining the fine qualities of the coffee, without acquiring any defective qualities during the roasting.

The addition of milk (which should always be hot) and of sugar highten the nourishing qualities of coffee, and in the morning render it a more substantial article for breakfast. When taken after dinner to promote digestion, it should be without milk, and, where the palate can be reconciled to it, without sugar.

The coffee trade has been wholly created since the beginning of the eighteenth century. Nearly all the coffee which now comes to Europe is the produce of trees propagated from a single plant, which, having been raised from seed procured from Mocha in Arabia, by Van Hoorn, governor of Batavia, was sent by him to the Botanical Garden at Amsterdam, and the progeny of which was, in the year 1718, twenty years after its reception from Java, sent to Surinam.

The coffee imported into England in 1849, amounted to the following quantities:—

British.....	40,334,630 pounds.
Foreign.....	22,985,876 "
	63,320,506 pounds.

Of this quantity nearly 37,000,000 lbs., were brought from Ceylon alone.*

The rapid increase of of the quantity of coffee produced in the Brazils is expressed in the following table, compiled by the Brazilian Consul General:—

PRODUCTION OF COFFEE IN THE BRAZILS.

	Bags.	Arrobas.	Pounds.
1820.....	95,700	478,500	15,312,000
1825.....	182,710	912,550	29.201,600
1830.....	391,785	1,958,925	62,685,600
1835.....	627.165	3,135 825	100,346,400
1840.....	1,063,805	5,319,005	170,208,800
1850–51.....	1,897,231	9,486,155	303,556,960
1851–52 estimate.....	1,700,060	8,500,000	272,000,000

It would seem, from this table, that the production of coffee in Brazil doubled every five years up to 1840, since when it has increased 80 per cent. The increase since 1835 has been 200 million pounds, and of that increase, the United States have taken one-half.

The following table shows the quantity annually imported into the United States from the four leading countries of production, and also the whole quantity imported into the Union during the past 18 years:—

* Knight's Cyclopedia.

IMPORT OF POUNDS OF COFFEE INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Brazil.	Cuba.	St. Domingo.	Java.	Total.
1834....	26,571,368	19,536,457	15,141,779	5,307,186	80.153,366
1835....	35.774,876	29,373,675	19,276,290	4,728,890	103,199,577
1836....	46,840,219	17,850,736	11,772,064	8,850,658	103,790,507
1837....	33,906,236	29,503,553	9,252,636	1,779,819	88,140,403
1838 ...	27,411,986	33,051,651	11,375,350	2,423,277	88,130,720
1839....	48,694,294	26,181,489	9,726,495	5,628,348	106,696,992
1840....	47,412,756	25,331,888	9,153,524	4,343,254	94,996 095
1841....	59,575,722	17,198,573	12,547,791	6,794.702	114,948,783
1842....	61,248,942	14,321,458	11,530,102	9,781,418	112,764.635
1843....	49,515,666	16,611,287	10,811,288	1,638,307	92.295.660
1844....	95,291,484	18,628,875	20,781,461	8,740,841	158,332,111
1845....	78,553,616	1,157,794	13,090,359	3,925,716	108,133.369
1846....	97,353,697	2,326,497	12,734,753	2,819,411	132,812,734
1847....	94.916,629	6,673.479	19,085,277	17,819,345	156,716,575
1848....	110,927.284	2,258,710	16.990,976	3,037,377	150,559,138
1849....	122,581.183	4.000,986	13,384,474	4,208,078	165,334.700
1850....	90,319.511	3,740,803	19,440,985	5,146,961	144,986,895
1851....	107,578,257	3,099,084	13,205,766	2,423,968	152,453,617

Nearly the whole increase in the import of Brazil coffee was, it appears, at New Orleans, to supply the Western trade. The import of coffee from Brazil in 1844 was extraordinary, amounting to nearly half the whole product of that country. Coffee, up to 1832, paid a duty of 5 per cent; since that year it has been free. The effect of this change is seen in the following table:—

IMPORTS OF COFFEE INTO THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE EXPORTS AND QUANTITY RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION, ALSO THE DUTY AND AVERAGE PRICE.

	Import. Pounds.	Export. Pounds.	Consumption. Pounds.	Duty per lb. Cents.	Avg. cost per lb. Cents.
1821.....	21,273.659	9,387,596	11,886,063		20
1822.....	25,082,390	7,267,119	18,515,271	5	20
1823.....	37,337,732	20,900,687	16,437,045		20
1824.....	30,224,296	19,427,227	19,707,024		20
1825.....	45.390,620	24,512,568	20,678,062		17
1826.....	37.319,107	11,584,713	31,734,784	5	11
1827.....	50,051,986	21,697,789	28,350,197		11
1828.....	55,194,697	16,037,964	39,156,733		9
1829.....	51,133,538	18,083,843	33,049,695	5	9
1830.....	51,488,248	13,124,561	38.363,687	2	8½
1831.....	81,747,386	6,056,629	75.702,757		8
1832.....	91,722,329	55,251,158	40,471,171	1	10
1833.....	99.955,020	24,899,114	75,057,906		10
1834.....	80,150,365	35,806 861	44,346,505		10
1835.....	103,199,777	11,446,775	91,752,802		10
1836.....	93.790,507	16,143,207	77,647,300		10
1837.....	88,140.403	12.096.332	76.044,071		10
1838.....	88,139.720	5,267,087	82,872,633		9
1839.....	106,696,992	6 824.475	99,872,633		9
1840.....	94.996,095	8,698.334	86.207,761		9
1841.....	144,987,787	5,784.536	109,200,247		9
1842.....	112.764,635	5,381,068	107.383.567	free.	8
1843.....	92,295,660	6,378,994	85.916,666		6¾
1844.....	158,332,111	8.620,291	149,711,820		6
1845.....	108,133,369	13.501.972	94,631,397		6
1846.....	132,812,734	8,275.542	124,537,192		6¾
1847.....	156.716,575	6,883,583	150,332,992		5¾
1848.....	150,559.138	6,998,088	143,561.050		5¾
1849.....	165,334,700	14,880,429	150,954,271		5½
1850.....	144,986,895	15,287,499	129,699,396		8
1851.....	152,453,617	3,513,126	148,920,491		8

The population of the United States in 1840 was, in round numbers, 17 millions. The average consumption for the three years 1839–40–41 was 98¼ millions of pounds, which gave a consumption of 5¾ pounds per head. The average for the three years including the census year 1850, was 143 millions of pounds, and the population was 23 millions, which gave a consumption of 6¼ pounds per head. In 1830 the consumption was only 3 pounds per head; but the price had ruled nearly double what it did in the three years preceding 1850. In 1821 the consumption per head to the inhabitants of the United States was 1 pound 4 ounces. In 1830 the proportion had increased to 3 pounds per head, the foreign price having fallen 50 per cent. After the 31st December, 1830, coffee paid 2 cents, and in 1831, 1 cent; after which it was free. The importation in the year 1831 doubled in consequence of the reduced duty, and the consumption per head for the four years ending with 1842 averaged 6 pounds per head, having quadrupled to each inhabitant since 1821. A large proportion of the increased consumption, as seen above, is derived from the Brazils; the effect of the production of which country has been to the price of coffee, what the products of the Southern States have been to that of cotton. From 1820 to 1840, the Brazilian product increased 1,100 per cent, or 155,000,000 pounds. In the same time the consumption in the United States increased 137,000,000 pounds; leaving an increase of 18,000,000 pounds of Rio Coffee, besides the enhanced products of all countries, to supply the increased consumption of England and Europe. The result has been the great diminution in price evinced in the above table. The cost per pound to the consumer was in 1831 further reduced by the removal of the duty; that is, the coffee which cost 9 cents in 1830, cost the consumer 16 cents duty and charges. The same coffee now costs 7 cents—a reduction of 9 cents, which has given the spur to the consumption. In England, foreign coffee paid 16 cents per pound duty, and colonial coffee 8 cents, until 1845, when colonial was reduced to 3d. and foreign to 7d. The consequence is, that while the United States, with a population of 17,000,000, consumed in 1844, 149,711,820 pounds of coffee, Great Britain, with a population of 27,000,009, consumed 31,934,000 pounds only, or less than one-fourth the consumption of the United States. In 1851 the figures remained nearly the same, viz:—148,920,000 pounds in the United States, and 32,564,000 pounds for Great Britain. Now the effect of this increased consumption of Brazil coffee on the American trade is as follows:—

	1834.	1843.	1851.
Import of coffee from Brazil.....lbs.	26,571,368	49,515,666	107,578,257
" " " .....value.	$2,819,028	$3,392,960	$8,881,105
Export of United States produce to Brazil...	1,586,097	2,409,419	3,128,956

This increased export does not appear to suffice for the compensation of the large increase in the value of coffee purchased, and it is time that some movement were made to check English influence in that quarter and induce Brazil to place her best coffee customer at least on as favorable footing as others.

Considerable ingenuity has been displayed in devising apparatus for preparing coffee for the table. The ordinary coffee-pot is the plainest and simplest of all; there is no contrivance for filtering the coffee. In Dresden and other parts of Germany, a thick piece of flannel, or some other woven material, is laid in a funnel, the ground coffee is placed on the flannel, and the boiling water filters through the coffee, the flannel, and the funnel, to a

vessel below—carrying with it the flavor of the coffee without the grounds or sediment.

Platow's Automaton Coffee-Pot has for its object to make coffee in less time and in a better manner than by the ordinary method. The machine consists of two parts. There is at the top a glass vase which screws off and on by means of wooden handles, and is furnished with a long narrow straight tube, resembling the pipe of a common funnel, and reaching nearly to the bottom of a metallic urn placed beneath the vase. Boiling water is poured into the vase in quantity sufficient for the coffee to be made; and this is allowed to descend into the urn. The ground coffee is then placed within the vase, on a small perforated silver plate. A lamp containing spirit or naphtha is placed beneath the urn, and in a short time the peculiar action of the apparatus develops itself. The steam formed on the surface of the water in the urn forces, by its elasticity, the water up the tube into the glass vase; where it acts upon the coffee in the usual way for extracting the qualities of the berry. When the coffee is so far prepared and is required to be *fined*, the lamp is removed, the formation of steam ceases, a partial vacuum is formed in the urn, and the external atmosphere, pressing on the open vase, presses or strains the coffee, first through the grounds and then through the perforated silver plate, so that it trickles into the urn in the state of a pure bright decoction. It is thus seen that the liquid makes two descents and one ascent between the vase and the urn, during the process. In a cheaper form of the apparatus, a common fire or lamp is used instead of a spirit lamp.

A coffee-pot of rather complicated structure was patented by Mr. Andrews of Wolverhampton in 1842. This coffee-pot had no less an adjunct than a small forcing-pump, placed near the handle. The boiling water was poured in the forcing-pump, while the ground coffee was put in a perforated vessel in the middle of the coffee-pot, and the hot water being forced by the pump, was made to saturate the ground coffee in a way which (we presume) was supposed to produce a result adequate to the costliness of the apparatus.

Waller's Coffee-Pot, patented in 1847, differs in many particulars from all the others. A horizontal partition, perforated near the center with fine holes, divides the vessel into two equal chambers; an open pipe leads nearly from the top of the upper chamber to near the bottom of the lower chamber, and another pipe leads from the perforations some way down the lower chamber, with a tap or cock which can be worked by a handle protruding through the side of the coffee-pot. The requisite quantity of water, either hot or cold, is poured into the upper chamber, and allowed to flow through the perforations and small pipe into the lower chamber; the ground coffee is placed on the perforated plate, the spout is closed with a cork or plug, and the vessel is placed on the fire. As the water becomes heated, the steam generated has no outlet upwards or sideways, and it therefore presses on the water, and forces it up the long pipe, whence it falls into the upper chamber upon the ground coffee. When all the water is thus forced up, the coffee-pot is removed from the fire, the vacuum in the lower chamber is condensed, the plug is removed from the spout, the top of the short pipe is opened, and the water trickles through the ground coffee and through the perforations into the lower vessel imbibing all the soluble and aromatic properties of the coffee as it descends.*

* Knight's Cyclopedia.

Art. V.—RAILROADS IN THE GREAT VALLEY.

The steam horse has commenced his career on the Western plains. For many years he has preferred to follow the small valleys, and wind among the hills of the Atlantic slope, venturing first through the Mohawk Gap, and proceeding with cautious movement to the eastern shore of Lake Erie. At long intervals he has also lent his aid to the planter in crossing the pine desert which borders the Southern States.

The broad plain embraced by the mountain ranges of the continent and the Gulf of Mexico is now, from one extremity to the other, invoking his presence. Hitherto, his exploits have been accomplished where natural obstacles were most numerous. Hereafter, the chief field of his operations will be in the wide plain of the North American continent, where he may fly along the track from city to city, from lake to lake, and from lake to gulf, without turning to the right or to the left. What a field for his exploits! In extent, numbering square miles by the million; its present population counting more, by two millions, than all the old States east of the mountains, and, within the life-time of persons now living, to number two hundred millions. According to a calculation, made with care, it appears that the people living on this plain, within our national limits, in 1850 numbered 12,541,139, counting only those north-westward of the principal range of the Apalachian Mountains. Within the next twenty years this number will swell to twenty-six millions. The Canadas and New Brunswick, within the plain, contain about two millions of people, and within the twenty years will have some four millions. Here will then be thirty millions living on a rich soil, in a variety of climates, embracing an abundant supply of mineral and vegetable riches, to be exchanged with each other and with neighboring communities. During the last twenty years railroads have increased in the United States from 176 miles in 1832, to nearly 12,000 miles in 1852. Their extent, at the end of the twenty years to come, cannot safely be predicted. That it will exceed fifty thousand miles is quite probable. It may be well to consider what routes occupied, partly occupied, and yet undetermined, promise greatest utility to stockholders and the public. To this consideration should be brought a good knowledge of the topography of the country, with some familiarity with the course of trade, and the capabilities of the various sections to furnish traffic to railroad lines.

There are some routes so strongly marked that one needs only a tolerable knowledge of the geography of the country to point to them on the map with almost unerring certainty. One of these is that which connects Buffalo and Albany. It occupies the only gate-way through the Apalachian mountains, except the comparatively unimportant one by Lake Champlain. Indeed, the valleys of the Mohawk and Lake Champlain furnish a passage-way between the two sides of our Atlantic system of mountains, that no other routes can safely attempt a rivalry, except at a great distance. By railroads from Oswego and Buffalo to Albany and Troy, the railroad traffic of four millions of people on the Atlantic slope will be exchanged for that of some six millions north-west of the mountains. All the other roads, connecting and to connect the West and East, necessarily encounter numerous comparatively high grades and many curves, making their distance practically greater between New York and the heart of the West, than the level route through central New York. The routes over the mountains to Philadel-

phia, Baltimore, Washington, Richmond, Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah, may divide among them the business of some four or five millions living in the western valley. Those leading to Philadelphia and Baltimore will naturally draw most of this business, because they are large cities; and still more, perhaps, because they are on the road to New York and the Eastern States. These routes, already occupied, are mentioned in this connection because they necessarily give direction to the railroads making, and to be made, in the West, with a view to Eastern traffic.

It seems as certain as anything in the future can be that the States north of the Ohio River, together with those west of the Mississippi, north of the latitude of the mouth of the Ohio, will, ultimately, if not immediately, direct their railroad lines, made with a view to Eastern business, *so as to form the easiest connection with the New York roads.* This will give to most of the great lines of this portion of the West a general direction from south-west to north-east. To this there will be an important extension of all that portion which is north of the latitude of the southerly bend of Lake Michigan. The railroads of the peninsula of Michigan, for many years to come, will naturally be directed from all quarters towards Detroit, as a market, a port of transhipment, and as a passage-way through Canada; and towards Toledo, as the gate-way to the country south of Lake Erie and to Cincinnati. Westward of Lake Michigan, the railroads will be directed chiefly towards Chicago, in order to pass the lake for a winter business in the East.

Of the routes commenced but not finished, the one most likely to rival in importance that through the Mohawk gap, is that which will occupy, as nearly as practicable, the line of latitude which touches the south shore of Lake Michigan, from the Misaissippi to Toledo, and which passes thence eastward along the south shore of Lake Erie to Buffalo. This necessarily takes an east and west course between the heads of the lakes, and it follows the shore of Lake Erie, because that is the most direct course towards Buffalo, and because the great gathering points of Commerce are on that shore. As a trunk-road for the convergence of business from other roads, and from lakes and canals, it has no rival and can have no equal in the United States. Near the south bend of lake Michigan it must gather in for a passage eastward all the winter traffic and much of the summer travel and trade of the vast country west of that lake, aided by converging railroads, plank-roads, and the Illinois Canal. On its way from Chicago to Toledo it will receive from the South several tributary roads, bearing produce for shipment down the lakes. One of these is in progress of construction, and two others are being prepared for letting. At Toledo it will receive from the North the business of the Southern Michigan Road and a railroad from Detroit, hereafter to be made. At the same point it will connect with six hundred and ninety miles of canal and a railroad to St. Louis.

This, at some future day, will itself become one of the great trunk-lines of the country. From the South will come in, at Toledo, a railroad forming the shortest practicable road between Cincinnati and the navigable waters of Lake Erie. This is progressing northward of Dayton, and may be expected to reach Toledo in two or three years. Proceeding eastward, two railroads, now in operation, come in at Sandusky City—one from Cincinnati, and the other from Zanesville. At Cleveland it is joined by two railroads, branching off to Cincinnati and Pittsburg. Other roads are being made from the forest city, into which, also, flows the Commerce of six hundred miles of artificial navigation. At Erie it is to be met by the Sunbury Rail-

road, opening a way to Philadelphia and Baltimore. It also connects here with a canal to Pittsburg. At Dunkirk it receives the New York and Erie Railroad; and, finally, at Buffalo it becomes one with the great Mohawk Valley trunk-line.

Taking the whole of this line, from Rock Island, on the Mississippi, to the city of New York, its peer cannot be found in the United States, nor, as it seems to me, in the world.

Another trunk-line of some three hundred miles extent, having an east and west course, will connect Cincinnati and St. Louis. This is understood to be under contract at nine millions of dollars. Two others, one from Memphis, the other from Vicksburg, will connect the South-Western States with the South-Eastern at Charleston and Savannah. The above-mentioned are all the trunk-lines likely to be made, nearly following lines of latitude.

The other great trunk-lines of the West will have a general course south-westerly and north-easterly. Many and cogent reasons favor this opinion. Such is the general course of the great rivers east of the Mississippi. The mountain and hill ranges are, of course, in the same direction. The commercial and manufacturing States and cities are north-east of the chief commercial and manufacturing cities of the great valley. The British Provinces and the United Kingdom, with whom is the main portion of the foreign Commerce of the West, are situated north-easterly of its center of business and population. Whether this foreign Commerce chooses for its channel the St. Lawrence River or the Erie Canal and central New York railroads, the railroads from Nashville, Louisville, Cincinnati, Cairo, and St. Louis must reach it in a north-easterly direction.

The English and Irish Channels, through which passes the greater part of our Commerce with Europe, are in the same latitude as the main entrance into the Atlantic, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The course of water transport, from the west end of Lake Erie to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is nearly in the same line as the railroads, which would connect with this water channel the center of the Mississippi basin, at St. Louis and Cairo.

The distance in a straight line from Cairo to Toledo is					miles 433
"	"	"	"	Chicago	335
"	"	"	St. Louis to Toledo		408
"	"	"	"	Chicago	258

It has been stated, as a controlling reason why these railroads should be directed to the south shore of Lake Erie, that they would there enter the best railroad route to New York and the New England States. In summer another motive is added. When navigation is open on the lakes and the Erie Canal, the traffic is floated at so cheap a rate, and in such safety, that, for anything but passengers and light freight of great value, railroads passing in the same direction, or towards the same destination, cannot compete with success. Even for passengers, the proud steamers of the lakes will hold, with their rival carriers of the land, a divided empire. This is especially true where the route by water is not materially longer than by land. That the lake route is preferred to that by the great rivers, in intercourse with the eastern world, and is growing in favor among the travelers of the western valley, is shown by the more rapid extension of lake than of river Commerce. According to a late report of the Secretary of the Treasury made to the Senate, in obedience to its call, the steam tonnage on the upper lakes has more than quadrupled in eight years, while, on the Mississippi,

it had only doubled in nine years. The sailing tonnage on the lakes increased in a nearly equal ratio with that of steam. As the steam tonnage of the lakes exceeded that of the Ohio or Mississippi basin, and as the tonnage of sailing vessels is scarcely less than two-thirds that of steam, it seems certain that the aggregate tonnage of the lakes must now nearly, if not quite, equal that of the western rivers.

We have said that lake navigation was safer than river. According to the document just referred to, the number of persons lost on the lakes during the year ending July 1st, 1851, was sixty-seven, (67,) and on the rivers, during the same time, six hundred and twenty-eight, (628.) This comparison does not tell the whole story; for while the lake air is proverbially pure and health-giving, no small portion of the river navigation subjects the traveler to fever-engendering malaria. As a water route, therefore, the lakes should be preferred for travel and freighting. This preference, thus shown to be well founded, should be duly appreciated when long and expensive lines of railroad are to be constructed.

The great interior commercial centers, in the river portion of the valley, are Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis. Perhaps Cairo may become one. Pittsburg holds its communication with the lake region through Cleveland and Erie. Cincinnati has its present railroad connecting with the lakes at Cleveland and Sandusky. To the former the distance is 259 miles, to the latter 219 miles. An air line to Cleveland would measure 220 miles, to Sandusky 184 miles, and to Toledo 180 miles. A near approximation to an air line would be more feasible to Sandusky and Toledo than to Cleveland, as it would involve less additional cost over the cheapest practicable route. An air line to Detroit, through Toledo, would be 135 miles in length.

For passengers between Cincinnati, Erie, and Buffalo, the Cleveland Road will be preferred. For railroad freights the shorter and cheaper lines to Toledo and Sandusky, in summer, will have the preference. The heavy freights, between Cincinnati and Lake Erie, will, of course, pass by canal, to and from Toledo. The cost of a railroad between these ports will be less, by some 25 per cent, than the Sandusky Road, owing to its having been a pioneer road, paying more for iron, &c., has cost. It may, also, be constructed for a less amount per mile, by some 20 per cent, than that which connects Cincinnati with Cleveland.

And here it will be appropriate to direct our attention to another of the main trunk-lines of the valley, passing through Cincinnati. Perhaps, in the far future, it may be as important as that which skirts the south shore of the great lake. Commencing at Detroit and terminating at New Orleans and Mobile, it would pass through the cities of Cincinnati, Lexington, and Nashville, and the important commercial towns, Toledo, Dayton, and Florence, besides numerous places of less note. By a short branch from the Mobile line, it would reach Pensacola; and, by roads already made, it would meet the south shore trunk-road at Cleveland and Sandusky—by the former, passing through the flourishing city of Columbus. By this road the principal gulf cities and lake cities would be brought into close communion of interest and feeling. In a straight line, the distance between Detroit and New Orleans is 940 miles. A feasible route could probably be found not exceeding one thousand miles. By river, from New Orleans to Cincinnati it is 1,556 miles, and thence, by the shortest traveled route, to Detroit, over 300 miles—together 1,860 miles. This road, if judiciously

located and managed, would, beyond a doubt, be profitable to its owners. Its way business, if it had no other, would insure that result.

Louisville and New Orleans will, probably, find the best railroad connection with the lake roads by way of Madison, Lawrenceburg, and Dayton. The Cincinnati roads, thence to Lake Erie, will be their roads.

The Central Railroad of Illinois, in connection with its continuation from Cairo to New Orleans and Mobile, and which we will call the Cairo line, is by some deemed the most important trunk-line between the gulf and the lakes. Compared with that which is to pass through Cincinnati, Nashville, &c., it seems to fall quite in the rear. Neither the towns, the natural resources, the populousness of the region it traverses, nor its railroad connections, are equal to those of the Cincinnati line. It has, besides, the disadvantage of reaching Lake Michigan at a point from which, in the transaction of its eastern business, a navigation of more than 700 miles must be performed in order to meet the advanced position on Lake Erie which the Cincinnati line first reaches. This will be a cheap navigation, but it will cost something, and in spring and fall will call for a heavy rate of insurance. The Cincinnati line will have the advantage, too, in its connection with the railroads leading from Nashville to Charleston and Savannah. The time seems distant, if it shall ever arrive, when any other route between the lakes and the Gulf of Mexico will take precedence of that through Cincinnati. The Cairo line, commencing at New Orleans and passing through Jackson, would have the advantage of the railroad business of the river towns, Vicksburg, Memphis, &c., and, by taking a course from Cairo through Indianapolis to Toledo, reach Lake Erie by a line only 100 miles longer than that to Chicago.

Another trunk-line, destined to a high rank, is that which is to connect St. Louis, the city of the Mississippi, with Lake Erie, at Toledo. Its length by an air line would be 408 miles, and by the most profitable route need not exceed 430 miles. It would pass over the lowest summit level between the upper lakes and the river valley, with the exception of that near Chicago. The summit at Fort Wayne is less than two hundred feet above the lake, and, practically, the whole route may be considered horizontal. It passes along the richest river valleys that can be united in one line between the great lakes and rivers; and its course is right for the most direct intercourse between the northern Atlantic States, Canada, and Europe, and the center of the great valley. For heavy freight, it could not compete successfully with the route from St. Louis, by way of Illinois River and Canal. The distance by the two routes to Lake Erie would compare as follows:—

From St. Louis to Lake Erie by railroad	miles	430 via Toledo.
" " " by rivers, canals, and lakes.....		1,067 via Chicago.
" " " by railroad and lakes.....		970 via Chicago.

For passengers and freight of high value in proportion to weight, the direct route would be preferred in summer, and would monopolize the business in winter. At St. Louis and Toledo, the extent of navigation it would connect would be great, and the railroads it would meet extensive. This is to be one of thousands, the way business of which is sure to pay a fair dividend from the start, and the termini of which are, by nature and art, the greatest gathering points of Commerce, by water and by land, which can anywhere be found.

Another very important trunk-road, between St. Louis and Cleveland, passing through Vandalia, Terre Haute, Indianapolis, Sydney, Marion, and

Shelby, is in the same general direction, and it cannot fail to transact a large through passenger business and a way traffic that would of itself give it a liberal support. Eastern freights on that portion of this road west of Bellefountain, destined for water transport, will find their cheapest route by way of Toledo and Sandusky.

Several of the trunk-lines herein mentioned will be continued west of the Mississippi. At least two important lines will be occupied from St. Louis—one in a north-westerly direction to Jefferson City and Independence, and the other south-westerly into Arkansas. From Hannibal and Davenport, on the Upper Mississippi, roads westward to the Missouri River are in contemplation. The former will connect with a line through Springfield, in Illinois, to Lafayette, Iowa, and the latter with the Rock Island Road to Chicago.

A trunk-line of great importance will be that which, as a continuation of the roads which gather from the West and South-West at the head of Lake Erie, takes its course north of Lakes Erie and Ontario, and so on down the St. Lawrence to Quebec, and thence to Halifax. The various links of which it is composed will probably be constructed within the next five years. This will be a rival line to those by New York and Boston for the travel between Europe and the great valley.

The foregoing seem to be the leading routes along which the most profitable railroads of the great plain will be operated. They will be the main lines on which, within twenty years, the thirty millions of the plain will carry on their traffic with each other, with some fifteen millions on the Atlantic border, and the land portion of their Commerce with foreign nations. At how small a cost per mile they may be built and operated, compared with the railroads of Great Britain and the Eastern States, is worthy of special note. The average cost in Great Britain has been about $170,000 per mile. Mr. Derby, last year, made the average cost of all the railroads in the United States a fraction less than $30,000 per mile. According to a tabular statement of this Magazine, (vol. xxv., p. 121,) the cost in Rhode Island was upwards of $52,000 per mile; in Massachusetts, $45,433; in Pennsylvania, $40,576; in Maryland, $36,250; in New York, $36,861; in Vermont, $35,367; in Connecticut, $31,757; in New Hampshire, $30,618; in Maine, $26,338; in South Carolina, $24,807; and in New Jersey, $24,490. In all the other States the cost has been less than $20,000 per mile.

Some of these have not been thoroughly built, and are, therefore, no criterion of the cost of roads of the best construction. Improvements in superstructure, and reduced price of rails, enable companies at the present time to build at less than heretofore. The railroads now in operation in the West have cost from $14,000 to $20,000 per mile. One of the best, the Cleveland and Columbus, cost $18,244. It could now be made as well for about $15,000.

A railroad eastward of Fort Wayne, Ia., upwards of 130 miles long, is understood to have been let to responsible contractors, to be made and finished for the running of the engine, including equipage, engine-houses, and stations, at $12,000 the mile. Several of the trunk-roads before mentioned, with iron at present prices, could be built in the best manner for $15,000 the mile. That from St. Louis to Toledo could be made deviating but slightly from a straight line, and with a profile as nearly horizontal as could be desired. It could probably be prepared for business for six millions. If any one thinks stock in this road would not be better than in a quartz mining company of California, we are not of his opinion.

The ability of western railroads to pay their owners a large profit has been fully proved. It is but a short time since the first railroad west of Pennsylvania, laid with a T rail, was brought into use. The Madison and Indianapolis, though not one of the great routes, paid during its last fiscal year 10 per cent dividend, after setting aside $100,000 surplus for permanent improvement of the road. It is well known that the Central and Southern Michigan Roads have paid well, although the former cost too much, and the latter has but recently had its chief portion laid with a T rail. Neither has had the advantage of any eastern or western connection with other roads.

The Cleveland and Columbus Railroad has much exceeded the expectations of its sanguine friends in the amount of business it has commanded, and the profits it has been able to divide. The same remarks are applicable, in a degree, to the Little Miami and Mad River Roads. No well constructed and well managed western road has failed to yield a large income. Such being the result, in the infancy of the country, and without a connection with the eastern system of railroads, what may we not reasonably expect when the population shall be trebled, their economical resources quadrupled, and connections formed with other lines east, west, north, and south; all which may be relied on to come to pass within twenty years.

The trunk-roads of the plain will possess an advantage over those in a country of hills and ridges, in the feasibility of making branch roads in any direction which the local wants of villages may require. They will, also, be much aided by plank-roads which, in the wooded country, are being made from nearly every considerable village, and from the more important prairy towns.

The great plain is provided by nature, in her rivers and lakes, with navigable waters, in length of shores to be counted by tens of thousands of miles. Within twenty years more than ten thousand miles of railroad, and double that extent of plank-roads, will connect its various parts. From mountain to mountain, and from lake to gulf, in a web that will embrace the whole surface, telegraph wires will exchange thoughts, giving to the entire population of 30,000,000 a community of ideas and interests which must soon mold them into a decided homogeneousness of character.

By means of the St. Lawrence waters, improved for the passage of large sea-going vessels to the upper lakes, a direct ocean Commerce will be established; and, by the Mississippi, ocean steamers will visit Cincinnati, Louisville, Cairo, and St. Louis. Twenty years soon pass away—but their effects on the beautiful plain, magical, as from the rapidity with which they are evolved, they may seem, will last forever. Before its last lustrum shall be entered upon, the delusion, so hugged in the Atlantic cities, that with them is to remain the empire of Commerce for this continent, will, to eyes that are open, be clearly visible.

How rapid is the transition! It seems but yesterday, when, to be carried 80 miles through the long day and night, seemed a great advance on the earlier means of western travel. A few short years will enable men living on the great lakes and the Mexican Gulf to meet each other by the light of the same day, on the morning of which they leave their respective homes. Four-fifths of the dwellers of the plain, when the lines of railroad now commenced shall be completed, with their tributaries of rail and plank-roads, will be able to meet each other in some central place, with the travel of one day; and half of them may have ample time for coming together "from rise of morn to set of sun." The people of the Rocky Mountains

may exchange salutations with their neighbors of the Alleghanies on the second day of their journey towards each other. Who can doubt that railroads and telegraphs will make us one country in heart as in government; and that the great plain, already preponderating in population, will fix within her bosom, during the present century, the great seats of Commerce and power of the nation. J. W. S.

Art. VI.—PROTECTION vs. FREE TRADE.

THE LAW OF PROGRESS IN THE RELATIONS OF CAPITAL AND LABOR.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine* :—

SIR:—In the article of Professor Smith in the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1852, he appears somewhat discontented that the discussion between him and myself has not been carried on under a correct title. He has, however, no one to thank but himself for this circumstance; for it arose out of his Quixotic attempt, at all hazards, to defend Mr. Carey's theory of political economy, even if he broke in unceremoniously upon the discussion of another subject, in which Mr. Carey's views were only incidentally mentioned. For my part, I have no objection to any title which he may please to give it, or to any issue which he may wish to make. He will be aware before this reaches him, that I have instinctively followed the course which he has pointed out, though it is that which he has not very concisely followed himself. Having got thus far, I am rather at a loss to proceed, for the Professor appears something like as a man in the *bush*, who, being without a compass, has lost his way, and therefore goes round and round, until he comes again to the spot from whence he started. I am also fearful that I may fall into the same track, for, having given up all idea that the Professor would make any further remarks upon my last, I transmitted to you, several weeks since, a rejoinder, of which I have not a correct copy, and therefore such a circumstance is very probable.

But to the subject. The first and second pages appear to be quite irrelevant to the point at issue, and can only have been written to lead the mind of the reader from the real question. We are not at issue upon the increasing facilities of the production of manufactures, nor upon the decreasing price of such articles: these are two points upon which we perfectly agree. On the third page I find the following: "R. S., and those who think with him, will *not* admit the supposition, that the total product is *not* increased, by at least a sufficient per centage to pay the increased proportion going to labor, without impairing the remainder belonging to profit. To establish this would be to prove that, in the progress of society, labor is devouring capital." Now this does not appear to me very intelligible at first sight, and I am not certain that I understand it, or even that the Professor himself is aware of its purport. Now, if we will *not* admit, "that the total product is *not* increased," &c., we must hold to the contrary, but this would have precisely the opposite effect, to that which the Professor states. The remuneration of labor being increased, while the profit on capital remained the same, labor would obtain all the advantage, *without* devouring the capital. But this would be *equally fatal* to the Carey theory, because the *rate* of profit is known to decrease in all countries, and therefore no accumulations

could take place, except from the savings of labor; and no increased portion could accrue to the capitalist as taught by Mr. Carey. Neither Ricardo nor McCulloch saw clearly the operation of the principle of rent, or they could not have supposed that profits could have been kept intact merely by keeping the *rate* of wages down. For if we were to concede the Carey theory, that the most productive soils are last cultivated, the increased production arising from that circumstance could avail nothing against the extra expense of carrying the products two or three thousand miles, and of replacing the fertility of the soil, constantly abstracted by the increase of population; and therefore from these two circumstances a constantly increasing *amount* of labor is required, to bring the same *relative* amount of necessaries to the point of consumption. When the lowest kind of labor has been brought to that point of remuneration at which nature refuses to increase the number of that class, by its own propagation, the encroachment of rent continues, by the increase and competition of the other classes of society, until the rate of profit reaches that point at which further accumulation becomes impossible; and if population still continues to increase, capital must be consumed. We may be satisfied of this, by observing the continued decrease of the rate of profit in England, as well as the continued and increasing amount of emigration. While upon this point I must be excused for referring again to the Professor's article of November, in reference to Mr. Porter's statistics.

He says: "In order to give their proper weight to the facts collected by Mr. Porter, we ought to take into account the population of the British islands at the periods to which they relate. Thus, between 1812 and 1848 the population increased about 50 per cent: according to the theory of Malthus and R. S., the number of persons having incomes between £150 and £500 ought to have increased in a lower ratio, but, in point of fact, it has increased threefold. There ought to have been less than 46,000 of them, while there were 91,101, or twice as many as the law of the English economists allows."

Now I am not aware, that the English economists have laid down any law by which the relative increase of population and income should be regulated, but I think the more we study these statistics the more we shall be satisfied that they thoroughly accord with the Malthusian and Ricardo doctrine. It is true that an idea had got abroad that, *relative* to population, England was decreasing in wealth, no doubt from the writings of the "Anti-Corn-Law League," and the serious decrease in the revenue; and still this may be the fact, Mr. Porter's statistics notwithstanding. Mr. Porter has, however, proved, that the income of a very small portion of the population has increased, but the increase of that income is "very nearly threefold greater than the increase during the same period, of *that portion* of the population of the United Kingdom subject to the income tax."

The statement is, that there are 91,101 individuals—of course including clergymen, lawyers, merchants, tradesmen, confidential clerks, agents, engineers, professional men of all descriptions, public servants, landowners and fundholders, and skilled mechanics, whose incomes are between fifteen dollars a week and fifty—while the whole of the *upper* and *middle* classes include only 109,000 persons—something over one three-hundredth part of the whole population. After all, this is no proof that the wealth of England has materially increased; there are the 299 individuals to each one of the hundred thousand, whose wealth or income, according to Lord John

Russell and the "Commissioners of Inquiry," have been diminished, which would allow a pretty good margin for accumulation, without any absolute increase of capital. At any rate it is a startling fact disclosed by these statistics, that all the appendages of wealth and luxury are enjoyed—everything beyond the mere necessaries of life, by one three-hundredth part of the population of Great Britain. We cannot forget in the meantime, that the number of landowners has decreased, from two hundred and forty to thirty thousand, and that the late Sir Robert Peel was obliged to lay a tax on property and income to maintain the revenue. Verily the Professor's "law of progress" works slowly in England, and probably he will admit that circumstances alter cases, that the law works in an inverse ratio—the *many* grow poor while the *few* grow rich. But I must return to the third page of the January article, from which I take the following: "If the theory of R. S. is correct—if capital has been gaining power at the expense of labor, and that in virtue of a permanent law, which must continue to operate in the future as in the past—then it is clear, that a duplication of *real* wages must have been and must ever be accompanied by more than a duplication of profits. If it were not, profits would recede relatively to wages, and our case would be made out. If it were, then the increase of wages and and the still greater increase of profits must be attended by a diminution of the share of products going to rent, which is equally fatal to the Malthusian hypothesis. The conclusion is to be avoided only by supposing the increase of production sufficiently large to cover a duplication and more than a duplication of rent, after satisfying the double demand of labor and the more than double demand of capital. All this, too, be it remembered, with a reduction in the cost of commodities to the consumer of more than fifty per cent."

The whole of this paragraph is a mass of mere sophistry, a tissue of misrepresentation and false reasoning. In the first place no one has said, "that capital has been gaining power at the expense of labor, in virtue of a permanent law, which must continue to operate in the future as in the past." The law laid down by Ricardo and others with respect to wages, may be stated as follows: the wages of common labor must always recede to the amount required to command the absolute necessaries of life; and when the price of necessaries permanently rises the money rate of wages must also rise, to cover the extra cost, or the laborers must diminish in number, until an equilibrium is produced, either by an increase of the rate of wages or a decrease in the price of necessaries. When labor is mixed with capital, as it is in the case of skilled labor, notwithstanding this circumstance it must to a considerable extent follow the same law; especially where the amount of capital required to learn the trade or profession is small. Therefore all the simpler operations of manufacturing industry may be classed in this category. The Professor speaks in the latter part of the sentence I have referred to, as though any one besides himself had supposed, or hinted, that a duplication of *real* wages had at any time taken place since the fall of Adam. It may be admitted, that in most cases of the invention or improvement of machinery, the workmen have to some extent shared in the extra amount of profit produced by those inventions; but when the monopoly of the invention ceases, wages always come down to the common level. And as improvements in machinery are more effective for the production of manufactures than for food and raw material, the manufacturing capitalist has had the opportunity, not only of reducing his workmen to the lowest

necessary rate of wages, but the reduction in the amount of labor required, by improvements in machinery, for the production of a given amount of manufactures, has allowed him at various times to obtain an increased rate of profit, at the same time that he reduced the price of his goods; and this was no doubt the case of Lowell. But when the competition of the foreign manufacturer became more intense, through the repeal of the British "corn law," and the discovery of Californian gold, the capitalist doubled the amount of machinery to each hand, and thereby nearly doubled the amount of production, while wages remained nominally the same, although, as I have since heard, they were absolutely increased, if reckoned in money; but not relatively to production. The corporations of Lowell, as I understand, have been in the habit of finding the hands board, and as the prices of food and other necessaries increased, the price of board was also increased, at the expense of the corporations; this may serve to show the operation of the principle of rent, upon the profits of capital and labor. But the time arrived, when for the interest of the capitalist it became necessary that the rate of wages should be absolutely reduced, and as this was already too low for the convenience of the operatives, many of them chose to migrate in search of other employment, and the mills either became silent or worked with little or no profit at all. Thus if wages have not been lowered in money rate, we may say with Carlyle, "Thanks to the inexhaustible *West*."

Before taking my final leave of the very ingenious paragraph which I have quoted, I would remind the Professor, that "the reduction in the cost of commodities to the consumer of more than fifty per cent," relates only to those commodities of which manufacturing wages form the greatest part of the cost of production—the prices of food and raw material tending constantly to increase. With regard to my views "in reference to rent entering into the price of commodities," I think Professor Smith might have gleaned that from my previous articles; but, not wishing to be misunderstood, I will take the opportunity to say, that in my opinion, there can be no doubt, that all the *equal* and necessary expenses of production must eventually enter into the price of every commodity, but as rent is evoked by the excess of demand over supply, although it be a component part of the price, it is not an element of cost, and it would be paid whether the supply be increased or not, acting as a premium upon land capital; and therefore what may be correctly termed rent does not enhance the price of any commodity.

I must now pass over a certain quotation from Malthus, which appears to have been a very necessary prop to the learned Professor's argument, for he has quoted it three or four times, and also the page from McCulloch, to come the more readily at the Professor's summing up of that page. It is as follows: "It teaches that wages rise because labor becomes more inefficient—that more is given because less is received—that capital pays a larger dividend to labor, because the fund from which it has to pay is diminished. Now, it is true, that the exposition from McCulloch, of the operation of wages and cultivation, is not quite so guardedly expressed as to prevent a disingenuous construction, but Professor Smith must be aware that it will not bear such a construction as he has put upon it. Let us quote: "A rise in wages is seldom or never exactly coincident with a rise in the price of necessaries, but they can never be very far separated. The price of the necessaries of life is, in fact, the cost of producing labor. The laborer cannot work if he is not supplied with the means of subsistence." Thus, in-

stead of wages having a tendency to rise, according to this they have a tendency to fall, and in the nature of things they cannot rise, beyond a bare subsistence. Neither is it exactly correct to say, that "labor becomes more inefficient," but, rather, that the land upon which it is necessarily employed, is less fertile, or at a greater distance from market; and therefore it requires a greater amount of labor for the production of a given amount of food. It would therefore be more correct to say, that as capital becomes more inefficient, the price of the necessaries of life has a tendency to rise, and therefore *real* wages diminish, but as it is necessary that the laborer should exist, the money rate must be increased to make good the deficiency. That would have been much nearer the truth; but let us see how American labor is paid.

The Professor says: "Our system, on the contrary, teaches that labor is more highly paid, both as to proportion and as to absolute amount, when it contributes and where it contributes, and because it contributes most to swell the gross quantity of the products out of which, or from the value of which, wages must be derived, when, and where, and because, it is most productive." This description of the mode of remunerating labor in this country appears to me equally loose with that of McCulloch, and in fact not *very* materially different, but with the characteristic ingenuity of Professor Smith, it could no doubt be made to mean anything, to suit circumstances. The Lowell operatives, however, were not paid according to production, but according to the necessary rate of subsistence, in the same manner as the English laborer. When the price of food raised, the increased cost was paid out of the profits of *capital* instead of wages. The Professor continues: "It (labor) is not allowed to monopolize *all* the gain resulting from its superior efficiency, though it obtains *the larger share.* Part is retained by the capital through the increased aid of which it was enabled to effect enlarged and improved results; part goes to the consumer by the fall of price."

The perfect ideality of the Professor's theory of the remuneration of labor is enough to make one laugh, if the subject were not of too serious a nature for jesting; he really appears to be as innocent of the operations of this out-of-door world as Casper Hauser could possibly be after his twenty years' confinement. If he will be pleased to ask the next working man which he meets in the city of Rochester, whether his wages will provide his family with as many necessaries *now* as they would ten years ago, he will then understand how much the laborer is benefited by his *larger share* of the profits, and how much the consumer is benefited by the *superior efficiency* of labor. But to proceed. The Professor thinks, "that it may be objected to the argument founded upon the diminished proportion which the declared or real value of exports from Great Britain bears to their official value, or quantity, that it is limited to manufactured commodities, and that the advance in real wages resulting in the diminution in their cost, may be counteracted by the rise in the price of agricultural products." That is very true, it may be objected to on that account; but the Professor thinks, that the statistics which he cited in the November number, of the agricultural production of France, and the statement of Mr. Malthus, before referred to, of the average proportion which *rent* bears to the value of the produce in England is a sufficient answer to that objection. This appears to be a little in the mode of begging the question.

Suppose one were to say to an English workman: "Why, you need not complain, that manufacturing wages have been lowering for the last thirty

years; your condition must be mending; it has been proved by some statistical calculations, that the production of food in France has been quadrupled, relatively to the increase of population, within the last one hundred and fifty years; therefore the working classes of England must be in a thriving condition; besides, the celebrated Mr. Malthus made a statement some forty years ago, to the effect, that the wages of labor must increase in proportion to rent, therefore you ought not to complain, for he ought to know." In such a case would not the workman think the party mad who volunteered this consolation? Would he not ask, what had the statistics of France to do with the condition of English workmen? or the statement of Mr. Malthus with the present time? But the Professor tells us in the former part of his article, "that he knows the condition of the laboring classes in England is bad enough, and that of those in France still worse," and yet now, he would persuade us, contrary to the testimony he has given us, and in opposition to his own assertion, that their condition has been constantly improving.

According to the statistics quoted by Professor Smith, the prices of manufactures exported from Great Britain within the last thirty years, have been reduced nearly sixty per cent; and according to the Edinburgh Review, also quoted by the Professor, we find that the price of wheat in the same time has fallen something less than forty. But we must remember that the whole of this reduction in the price of manufactures, has fallen entirely upon wages and profits, as the raw material of which they are fabricated, has in the meantime maintained its price, if it has not increased; therefore the cost of labor, from some cause or other, must be considerably less than this would represent. But we ought to make some allowance for the peculiar position in which prices have been placed by the repeal of the "corn law," and the throwing open of the trade in provisions to the whole world. Even under present circumstances manufacturing productions have fallen relatively twenty per cent; but what might have been the case under other commercial policy we can only guess.

The Professor next quotes statistics to show the large comparative decrease of the agricultural population of England, for the purpose of assuming a decrease in the cost of agricultural production, but I think it unnecessary to say anything upon this point, except that I think it would be strange if the improvements in agricultural implements had not the effect of keeping the number of hands nearly stationary, in a stationary business. I would now call particular attention to the Professor's quotation from the Edinburgh Review, (on page 36,) in which is shown the relative progress of population, and the production of agricultural produce, for thirty years previous to 1841. From these statistics it appears that the population has increased about seven per cent *more* than the production of wheat, in thirty years, under the strictest system of protection to agriculture, and at a time when two-fifths, or upwards of twenty millions of acres of waste lands remained untilled. It appears also, from these statistics, that the price of wheat has fallen from an average of 88s. to 56s. 9d. in the same period. The Professor says: "It would be easy to bring any quantity of testimony upon the point under consideration." I can only say, that I have no objection to as much as he chooses, nor to rest the case upon what he has already produced. He appears to think I have stated the rise in rent something too high. I have no objection, however, to Mr. Porter's statement, as he appears to like it best. According to Mr. Porter, rent has increased *throughout* the United King-

dom 150 per cent, while the production of wheat has increased little more than 25 per cent—the price having decreased in the same period 40 per cent. Rent would, therefore, according to Mr. Porter's statement, at this time buy four times the wheat in England as it would thirty years ago; making an increase of income to the landowner of 300 per cent, while the farmer has increased the crop only 25. The proportion which rent would bear to the crop would be represented as follows: crop 125, rent 250. Thus, if rent, as according to Malthus, (the statement quoted four times by the Professor,) bore the proportion of two-fifths, or 40 per cent, of the crop, it would now stand as 90 to 125—the proportion of rent to the crop having been augmented from two-fifths to more than three-and-a-half fifths; proving that Malthus was either originally mistaken as to the proportion and operation of rent, or that circumstances have materially altered these proportions and operations since his time; and that Mr. Carey's theory of the superior increase of food to population, with a decreasing proportion to rent, is an utter fallacy. And yet the Professor sums up this matter in the following modest strain: "If we suppose the same rate of progress to have existed in the ten years preceding 1801 as since, the increase of population between 1790 and 1841 will amount to 73 per cent. The rent has advanced, according to Porter, 150 per cent, or twice as fast, and inasmuch as the produce has augmented according to Malthus, twice as much as rent, it has increased *four* times as rapidly as the consumers." Thus, after giving us "unexceptionable testimony" from the Edinburgh Review, and the assurance of the "exceeding great increase of agricultural production" from Mr. Porter, the Professor makes no calculation as to the relative increase of produce and population from the statistics he had quoted, but makes a supposition as to the increase of population, and then adds together the increase of rent and the statement of Malthus, to prove that agricultural produce had quadrupled, when the statistics show that it had increased only 25 per cent.

The Professor pursued the same mode of begging the question with the French statistics in the former part of his article, when the price of wheat showed, according to the law of supply and demand, that the increase of crop was not equal to that of population. The Professor proceeds to say, "he thinks it has been made apparent, that capital in land follows the same laws as that of moveable property." Now, I think quite the contrary. I think it has been proved, that the value of land in England, as measured in rent, has increased 500 per cent *more* than the produce; and this is a premium obtained out of the profit of circulating capital; and all without expense to the landowner. The Professor's ideas of capital appear to be somewhat confused, but no doubt that may arise in some measure, from the absurdity of the theory which he advocates. Many persons suppose that all wealth is capital. Large amounts of wealth may be accumulated, sold, and used, but capital must at all times be limited by the power of producing absolute necessaries. It is this circumstance which causes the difference in the operation of price, between manufactured articles and raw produce. Money, whether of paper or of gold, beyond a certain necessary amount, is not capital; and as it is not consumed, beyond the necessary wear, it depreciates faster than any other commodity.

The protectionists are complaining of the falling off of the exports of breadstuffs, &c.; but they should remember that the cheapest article must be exported. This has not been caused by any lack of demand in England,

but because we had more money than grain. But to return to our subject. The Professor continues, in rather a pedantic and supercilious tone, to show his own and the superiority of the Carey school, over that of Ricardo and Malthus, in the following manner: "The difficulty with the Ricardo and Malthus school of economists is, that instead of observing the facts, and endeavoring to deduce a theory from them, they have invented an hypothesis to which they are determined that facts shall be made to conform. It is the old error of the middle age scholastics, from which it has been supposed that Bacon had redeemed the human intellect. Its followers are so given over to strong delusion, that they answer the characteristic description of Shakspeare, of which we have during the last year had so many brilliant examples,

"'And like a scurvy politician seem to see
The thing that is not.'"

I shall not attempt to vie with the Professor in quoting Shakspeare, for, not being in possession of Mr. Clark's Concordance, I might not quote correctly; I shall therefore give that up; but I must take leave to say, that I think he has made a material mistake in the first line of our quotation, as to who are the parties implicated in the "strong delusion," which I must leave to others to correct. With regard to "the old error of the middle age, from which it has been supposed that Bacon had redeemed the human intellect," I can only say, that unless that commodity called human intellect had been stowed away somewhere in a large reservoir, so that it might have been doled out to those who were deficient, I can see no ground for the supposed redemption: for I know certain people in the community whose intellect is so small that they cannot perceive the truth, even if they strike their heads against it. But I must now return to the Professor, at whom I hope no one will suspect I have been hinting, although he appears to proceed without rule or compass, for he quotes again some passages from the June article, which he had quoted and commented upon in a former number, which I must be allowed to notice. He says: "R. S. asks, if food tends to increase more rapidly than population, how is it that capital has accumulated *unequally* in the hands of a few, and that number rapidly decreasing in all countries?" and then proceeds as follows: "We have shown by unimpeachable authorities of this very sect, that the number is not decreasing but increasing." Thus it is conceded, that "capital has accumulated unequally in the hands of a few"—so few in England, that out of a population of about thirty millions, one hundred and nine thousand comprise the whole of the middle and aristocratic classes, when, less than half a century ago, the land alone was divided among two hundred and forty thousand proprietors—showing most conclusively, that although the number of taxable individuals may have increased within certain limits, since 1812, including large as well as small incomes, down to £150 a year, that this number of taxable individuals has increased by the absorption of the capital of the other one hundred and fifty thousand—proving, as far as England is concerned, the other part of the allegation, that "the number of capitalists is rapidly decreasing." From the same paragraph from which we quoted before, we have another quotation from the June number to the following effect: "If food tends to increase more rapidly than population," asks R. S., "what gives capital a continually increasing power over the wages of labor?"

The Professor then says: "It has been shown that labor is more and more emancipating itself with the progress of population and capital." To

this I must decidedly object. The French statistics produced in the former part of the article, were obviously mere calculations, without taking into account the *whole* of the facts in the case, as shown before; and the English statistics contradict the conclusion. The Professor says, (on page 35,) "The number of agricultural laborers in Great Britain has been constantly decreasing in the proportion which it bore to the whole population and the crop. Thus, Mr. Porter informs us, (Progress of the Nation, vol. i., p. 148,) that the total number of families in Great Britain has increased, between 1811 and 1831, from 2,544,215 to 3,414,175, or at the rate of 34 per cent; the number of families employed in agriculture has increased only from 896,998 to 961,134, or at the rate of 7¼ per cent. It was shown by the census of 1841, that the number of persons employed in agricultural labor was less absolutely and of course still less proportionally than in 1831. We are not yet furnished with the information upon this point obtained by the census of 1851, but there can be no doubt, that the same decrease in the proportion of agricultural laborers has continued down to the present period." Now, this information exactly accords with our previous deductions, and contradicts those of the Professor.

The large farmers and large landowners in England have constantly been swallowing up the small ones, and forcing this part of the agricultural population into the cities, to increase the *middle* or the *working* classes, as the case may be; and although the number of persons having incomes of fifteen dollars a week and upwards to fifty, may have increased in a larger ratio than population, this has been produced, as I have before intimated, by the accretion of smaller capitals, and therefore sustains my previous statement, that the number of capitalists is *rapidly* decreasing. While the number of taxable individuals has increased, in relation to population, at the rate of 150 per cent, the increase of the wealth of that class has been "very nearly threefold greater," than the increase of *the class* itself. And, in relation to population, the landowners have decreased within the same period 750 per cent; therefore each of the 150 of the taxable individuals must have absorbed the capital of five of the missing landowners. Notwithstanding the rapid relative decrease of the English agricultural population, (350 per cent in twenty years,) we are informed, both by the statistics from the Edinburgh Review, and the quotations from Mr. Porter, of the "exceeding great increase of agricultural production in the same period; showing that the land has not been going out of cultivation, but that the labor has been driven off, and replaced by a larger proportionate amount of capital, in the shape of improved machinery; and therefore the wages of labor must have been reduced to the minimum of subsistence, and their numbers thinned, either by the operation of nature's immutable law, or forced into the large towns, to compete for subsistence with the manufacturing populations. Thus, while (according to Professor Smith) "the labor cost of agricultural products has been diminished," *capital has increased unequally in the hands of a few*, and increased its power over labor, while rent also has increased. Thus the Professor has assisted me to demonstrate those facts, of which I was previously aware, and for which I owe him my most cordial thanks.

From the last quotation he proceeds as follows: "It certainly was a plausible figment of the imagination, that men in the first instance appropriate the most fertile soils, and only take the inferior grades into cultivation, as they are driven to it by necessity; for forty years the assertion that they did so, stood uncontradicted." Now I beg leave to say, with all due

deference to Professor Smith and the Carey school in general, that in my humble opinion, it is not, at this moment, of the slightest imaginable consequence, whether *the assertion* were or were not a figment of the imagination, for the principle of *rent* derived from it, could operate *only* so long as society remained in the agricultural state. As soon as Commerce and manufactures began to collect people into large masses that principle of rent was modified, and could only operate to the smallest possible extent, and another principle of rent, kindred in its operation, supervened, which had, and continues to have, the same effect as the original. And although this principle was not perceived by Malthus, Ricardo, or McCulloch, many of the general axioms, and *the final* conclusions of those writers, remain intact, and that is the reason why it may be said, that I belong to the same school. But, notwitstanding, this "figment of the imagination" must be placed to the account of the Professor's favorite author upon political economy, Adam Smith, as I have before demonstrated, though he did not carry it out to its legitimate results. He also perceived and enunciated that part of the *ultimate* principle of rent which operates by the collection of large masses of people in cities, requiring food and raw materials of every description to be carried from a greater distance, and therefore requiring an extra amount of labor for the *same relative* supply of necessaries to a given point; leaving out that part of the principle operating by the necessary abstraction of fertility by the increase of population—the loss of manure in various ways, and the consequent extra amount of labor required to obtain materials to keep up the fertility of the poorer and more distant soils.

The Professor thinks that the admission in the June article "that mankind will at all times cultivate the most available soils, those that will produce the *largest returns* for the labor and capital *ready at the time* to be invested," oversets the Malthusian theory—assisted also by the following assertion: "And that it is not until labor is *cheapened* by competition, that society can be forced into the expenses of clearing and draining, which, in some instances, cost more than the land was originally worth." Now, I must say, that I do not perceive any material difference between either of these propositions and the general principles of the Malthusian and the Ricardo theory. It cannot be supposed that an individual possessing common sense, or the common instincts of nature, would go two miles from his dwelling to cultivate a piece of land, when he might cultivate other land of equal quality at one half the distance, or that he would go to the expense of clearing and draining, while there was other land to cultivate that would pay the common rate of profit. It is evident, therefore, that if an individual go two miles instead of one, to cultivate a piece of land, it would be because it was "the most available," or, in other words, its relative fertility must be such as to overpay the extra cost of labor required; and in regard to clearing and draining it is also evident, that as soon as labor and capital are sufficiently cheap and plentiful to allow of the cultivation of such land, bringing the common rate of profit, or the next best rate to the common rate, it will be cultivated. It is obvious, therefore, that so long as self-interest is the universal motive of mankind, the rate of profit could not increase; simply because every individual would take the most available or the best land first. There is no other way of accounting correctly for the decrease of the rate of profit upon capital.

Money and the precious metals might be increased indefinitely, but this would not decrease the rate of profit upon capital. The precious metals

have the least pretension to be called capital, of any existing commodity. Under these circumstances their relative value would be lowered, but the *principal* and interest would maintain the same relation to each other as before, and the rate of profit would still be indicated by a decrease in the rate of interest. From these premises we are therefore bound to say, that if "food increased *faster* than population," the rate of profit must also increase, which neither Mr. Carey nor Professor Smith will assert. Whether "Malthus and Ricardo, if alive, would emphatically have declined such testimony" as that which I have just quoted from a former article, I am not able to say, but this I may be allowed to say, that I never guarantied (by implication or otherwise) anything beyond their general and ultimate conclusions. I therefore cannot be held accountable for their errors and mistakes. But I cannot admit that their theory of cultivation was an error, though, as I have before stated, it is now of no consequence whether it were so or not; one thing is certain, that there are more than twenty millions of acres of land in England untilled, which the "corn law" failed to force into cultivation; as also the present low rate of profit; and yet England imported in 1850, seventy-two millions of bushels of grain.

Professor Smith has also quoted Professor Johnson to show that, in his opinion, the loss of manure, by the sewerage of each town of a thousand inhabitants, is equal to the fertility required for the production of a thousand quarters of wheat, which I should presume does not assist the Professor's theory of production. Although quoted from a *free-trade* article in the North British Review, I must beg leave to differ, both from the reviewer and Professor Johnson, for although these calculations are very ingenious, and well calculated to attract the unthinking, little or no dependence can be placed upon them. It is pretty well understood, that this is the only loss of manure permitted in England, and there can be no doubt that this loss is overrated, as party writers are apt to overrate small matters. For sixty years England has been an importer of raw produce to a considerable extent, and more especially within the last thirty, she has imported vast quantities of grain, beef, pork, lard, butter, cheese, eggs, coffee, tea, sugar, spices, cotton, hemp, flax, tallow, hides, &c., besides manures. Thus it is not too much to say, that she imports one-third of her consumption, and, according to the writer in the North British Review, "the importation of food bears a higher proportion to the home produce, than the annual addition to the population." And yet, with all the refuse matter remaining from this large and *increasing* quantity of food and raw material grown upon other soils, the average fertility of land in England has not reached more than twenty-eight bushels—an amount far from equal to the production of the virgin soils of America. It is not pretended by any of the writers quoted by the Professor, that any of the land in England is going out of cultivation, or becoming less valuable, which it ought to do, under the operation of such large importations, if Mr. Carey's theory were true. On the contrary, we find, according to the necessary sequence of the Malthusian and Ricardo theory, that the importations of grain are constantly increasing "in a higher proportion to the home produce *than the annual addition to the population.*" Thus the production of food in England is relatively decreasing, under all these favorable circumstances, and while she has twenty millions of acres of uncultivated land. But if, as according to Professor Johnson, the loss of manure by sewerage be great, there is still one thing to console us, the labor and capital which it would require to collect it, is not

also lost. This again brings to mind *the fallacy* of the theory of the superior relative increase of food; labor-made fertility, although it may tend to keep up the rate of profit, can never increase it; because, first, the extra labor must be paid for out of the extra crop; and, secondly, what is saved is previously abstracted from other soils. Thus, if the mass of human beings did not abstract one atom of fertility from the earth, nor were there one atom wasted, we could not reach beyond the original fertility, and the rate of profit would even then diminish, from the cost of the extra labor required in cultivation.

I should have preferred to have closed this article at this point, which is already too long, but there is another important point, which I must beg to be excused for noticing, with regard to the continued depreciation of capital. The Professor acknowledges the error he fell into in a former article, but afterward endeavors to confuse and mystify the subject. His original proposition stands thus: "Mr. Carey shows that capital in land obeys the same law as capital invested in machinery; among other things, like other commodities, it will never bring as much as it cost to produce," because the progress of capital and improvement enables man to reproduce the same thing with less expenditure of labor." And he thus acknowledges its general incorrectness: "The proposition which I stated of course did not relate to an immediate sale. It is doubtless *true, as a general rule*, that any piece of machinery, upon its completion, *will bring its cost.* Every improved machine for which a patent can be procured, will, during the duration of the patent, produce *more than the cost and the ordinary rate of profit.* But every improvement is such in virtue of the fact that it cheapens something else. The moment it comes into use, the commodity, whatever it may be, the process of obtaining which it facilitates, is offered in the market at reduced cost. But all existing commodities of the same kind must also fall to the same price. They will bring only what it *now costs* to produce them."

Now, I think it would be difficult to imagine a more complete repudiation of any proposition than the Professor has been forced into, in the present instance. He has acknowledged that "every improved machine will, during the term of the patent, produce *more* than the cost and the *ordinary rate of profit.*" And, in fact, that all commodities "*will bring what it now costs to produce them*," and of course a profit besides, or, instead of improvements continuing to increase, machinery must cease to exist, and society, instead of becoming more numerous and wealthy, must decrease in number. I merely mention these circumstances to show the Professor how persons are "betrayed by the necessities of a false system *into flagrant inconsistencies.*" In speaking of improved methods, the Professor says: "The moment it comes into use the commodity is offered at reduced cost." By which I presume he meant to say, "at reduced price." But I humbly conceive that this depends upon circumstances, and is not true as a general rule. It is not for the interest of individuals who invent improved methods to reduce the price of their machinery below that of the old; for although in some instances it may cost less, they generally expect and always obtain, if it be really an improvement, a greater price, and consequently an increased profit. Neither is it for the interest of the manufacturer who uses improved machinery immediately to reduce the price of his commodity. They each have an interest opposed to this; both would naturally wish to be paid for extra capital expended, before the price is reduced; and therefore this is not

done unless the state of the market enforces it. It is not the interest of the public which the inventor or manufacturer wishes to serve, but his own. And as improvements cannot become general at once, the old machinery is generally worn out in due time, having paid its cost and profit long before that period, which enables the manufacturer to replace it with new. If this were not the case, who would be found to invest capital in machinery? The Professor endeavors further to illustrate his views upon this subject by borrowing an idea from M. Bastiat, who says he can now purchase a Bible for fifty cents, or half a day's labor, which formerly cost the labor of three hundred days to produce a worse copy. We must remember, however, that fifty cents is what it *now costs* to produce it.

The idea, also, expressed in the following quotation, if I rightly understand it, is also erroneous: "Every step in improvement *gives labor an additional command* over some one of the constituents of capital, and consequently raises the rate, between the value of existing labor and the sum total of capital." If it is intended to say, as I presume it is, that these improvements in labor increase its relative value to that of capital, I must object to the assertion as being contrary to fact. The Professor has himself given us an incident by which we may prove the matter, pro or con. It is stated that we can now purchase a Bible for the price of half a day's labor, which at one time would take the price of three hundred days' labor to purchase. Now, let us suppose the value of the raw material necessary for the production of the Book to have remained stationary at *one-eighth* of a day's labor. At one time it would take 2,400 times as much raw material to purchase the Book as was required for its production; whereas at present it would require only four times as much. Has labor gained "additional command" over capital, or has capital gained additional command over labor in this instance? It matters not whether raw material has increased in price, or whether labor has decreased; or whether each have moved in the direction indicated; it shows the same operating principle: all improvements increase the relative value of the land. It is not therefore true, "that *the capital* of a nation which is making the slightest industrial progress, will each day command less labor than it would the preceding day." The amount of capital being limited, by circumstances which we have previously explained, while it requires less labor each succeeding day to effect the same amount of production upon a given amount of capital—capital must, of course, as we have seen in the instance above, continue to purchase or command, a larger amount of labor instead of a smaller. In continuation of the subject the Professor says: "To show that the same proposition holds good as to land, it is only necessary to demonstrate that it owes its whole value to labor." And then quotes from a speech of Mr. Webster's at Buffalo, to show, that "without human labor land is not worth a rush, from Dan to Beersheba." I must beg, however, to differ from both these great authorities, with all due humility. But the Professor turns round upon his own proposition and Mr. Webster's opinion, and restates the proposition in the following manner: "Now the proposition is, that the land will not bring as much as the cost of the labor *in and near it*, to which it owes its entire value. In the case of a farm in the neighborhood of a city suggested by R. S., the difficulty is to enumerate and estimate the value of the labor expended in the city, and to apportion it among the various tracts which have had their value *enhanced* by such expenditure." The second proposition is a direct acknowledgment that the first was untenable. It is admit-

ted indirectly, that the land will always bring more than the cost of the improvements and the cultivation expended upon it: but to make out the original proposition, "that land will not bring as much as it cost to produce," the Professor has attacked the value of all "the roads, railways, and canals, the buildings, public and private, the fences, wharves, bridges, and structures of every description, that go to make the State what it is," as though the land itself had been produced by this expenditure of labor, instead of the expenditure having been produced from the land. It would, apparently, be almost as reasonable to expect that the value of a machine for the production of cloth, which had been at work for an extended period, could purchase back the whole of its productions. But the cases are not parallel. However large a quantity the machine had produced, it would only purchase back a certain amount—the necessary cost of its original production, with a deficiency for wear and tear. But the position of the land is different, notwithstanding the assertion of Professor Smith and Mr. Carey to the contrary. The amount of land being limited, the more other capital and wealth is accumulated the larger *relative* price it will bring in the market; but whether it would purchase the whole of the other capital and wealth of the State, or the world, I am not able to say: neither do I think it important *to study that problem.*

With regard to Madame de Savigne having arrived at the conclusion that land is not wealth, I think we may give her credit for the possession of common sense, but I presume she did not, like Professor Smith and Mr. Webster, conclude that land was not valuable.

Having now thoroughly examined what the Professor has said in favor of Mr. Carey's theory, I must beg leave to say, with all due deference and respect to all men who are earnestly engaged in the search after truth, that although learned and eminent men in other countries may think it necessary to study Mr. Carey's economical works, I have seen no reason in this discussion, to alter my previously expressed opinion with regard to them, and I hope it will not be deemed presumptuous in me to say, that in my opinion "it is a theory of antagonisms and is crammed with absurdities." And as Professor Smith has more than once intimated, in this correspondence, that the truth of Mr. Carey's theory is the only tenable ground for "protection" to rest upon, I hope I shall, like Jack Lanton in the "Spy," have the pleasure of welcoming his return to the ranks of freedom (of trade).

R. S.

Art. VII.—OF THE COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHANGE IN THE RELATIVE PRICES OF GOLD AND SILVER DUE TO THE RISE OF THE ONE AS WELL AS THE FALL OF THE OTHER—REMARKS ON MR. GOUGE'S OBJECTIONS TO THE REDUCTION OF THE AMOUNT OF SILVER IN HALF DOLLARS—SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE COINAGE OF LARGE COIN OF FROM FIFTY TO FIVE HUNDRED DOLLARS EACH, OF A MEAN STANDARD BETWEEN THE MARKET VALUE OF GOLD AND SILVER.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc*:—

DEAR SIR.—The subjoined was written with the intention of sending it to you for the *Merchants' Magazine.* I have been induced to publish it first in the *North American* by the publication of some opinions which seemed to me erroneous, or unsatisfactory, and of which I hoped to lessen the influence by publishing mine.

In your periodical it will have a more permanent and accessible position.

Yours, &c., ROBERT HARE.

THE price of mercury rose within a quarter of a century to double that which it previously commanded, and as the extrication of silver from its

ores in Spanish America has been effected by a process requiring a proportion of this metal to be consumed, the rise in the price of the one could not but augment the price of the other.

Moreover, the anarchical state of Mexico and other argentiferous regions, caused the working of very productive mines to be suspended or abandoned. Meanwhile, the growth of population in countries where silver is used for table service, and as specie, must have caused the demand for this metal to increase.* These circumstances have no doubt raised the market price of silver.

Gold is for the most part extricated by washing, and even so far as mercury is used to extricate this metal, the increase of its price would affect gold as much less, as gold is dearer than silver for equal weight. Then, again, the mercury used to collect gold is recovered by distillation. This is not the case with the mercury used in the Mexican process for silver. In that the mercury is wasted.

I presume I have said enough to show that there is good reason to suppose that the change in the relative market price of gold and silver has been due in part to the decline in the supply of silver, in proportion to the demand, as well as to the augmentation of the supply of gold. In a recent letter of Mr. Gouge to Mr. Hunter, Chairman of the Financial Committee of the Senate of the United States, objecting to the proposed reduction of the amount of silver in half-dollars, the idea that the change in relative value is in part due to the enhancement of silver, does not seem to have been considered. He urges that the proposed change in the quantity of pure silver in the half-dollar coinage, must tend to change or debase the standard of our currency. Had not that standard been already lowered relatively to silver by the influx of gold from California, and the price of mercury, and other causes making the extrication of silver more costly or disadvantageous, Mr. Gouge's allegations might be true. But the degradation has taken place. Gold, relatively to its former value, has fallen; silver has risen.

Agreeably to Mr. Gouge's just impressions, when a cheaper metal is circulated at the same nominal value, the dearer disappears; under these circumstances gold has become the standard, being a legal tender at its former weight. The reasons assigned by Mr. Gouge would induce a wish that, instead of lowering the weight of our silver coin, that of the gold could be raised by using as much more of that metal as will compensate the decline in price. But as an obstacle to this, we have the practical necessity of calling in all of the present gold coinage, because the more valuable coin would be hoarded, or selected for hoarding, for exportation, or manufacturing, so that it could not be got into circulation. Moreover, as our gold coin is no less a legal tender than our silver half-dollars, I do not understand how a creditor, in receiving payment in half-dollars, of which two will be equal to one gold dollar, will be placed in a situation less advantageous than if they were not introduced into circulation; since, in the absence of the silver, he would be paid only in equally depreciated gold.

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* I was well informed that a mine, which yielded two million of dollars annually, was abandoned in consequence of the caving in of the earth so as to require about two millions to put it into working order. An effort was made, not without great encouragement, to obtain in this country the capital requisite to restore the mine to a state of productiveness. A succeeding money pressure put an end to the project.

Unless equalization be effected by lessening the amount of silver in the half-dollar coinage, or augmenting it in that of the gold dollars, or altering both so as to bring them to meet half way, the two coins cannot both remain in circulation. An enhancement in relative value has driven the silver from the field, and will of course, *a fortiori*, so long as it endures, prevent it from recovering the participation which it enjoyed.

Doubtless, were it not for the cost of recoinage, it would be better to increase the weight of gold representing a dollar, and to diminish that of the silver in the dollars of that metal; but this would be expensive. Therefore, I would suggest that, while the diminution of silver in the half-dollar coin shall be carried out, Mr. Gouge's objections notwithstanding, that a coinage of gold pieces of fifty, one hundred, and five hundred dollars should be resorted to, holding as much more gold as may bring them to a mean standard between the existing gold and silver coinage.

This would cause half the difference of value arising from the deviation to fall on the payer, and half on the receiver of the gold. Coin of all the larger sizes would serve only to be hoarded or exported, since no one wanting gold as cash would wish to exchange the smaller pieces, however lighter in proportion to nominal value, for the larger pieces.

The ability to change the smaller coin for the larger, would cause the latter, in an ordinary state of things, to be as valuable as if they were to be of the same standard.

Where strict reference to standard value should be required, resort to the scale-beam would put it in the power of those concerned to compensate for the difference between the nominal value and standard value. Placing one of a large coin in one scale, and its nominal equivalent in smaller pieces in the other, it were easy to see how much its nominal equivalent should be below the standard equivalent. Of course a weight made to balance a coin accurately would serve in its place.

One obvious advantage of the proposed arrangement would be that our smaller coin would be less in demand for exportation. We should not coin money for foreign crucibles. It may be conceived that ingots would serve as well as coin for the larger pieces, but the process of coinage affords a greater security for uniformity in dimensions than any other, and is, upon the whole, as I suppose, about as cheap a mode of attaining the object as any which can be devised.

The practicability of having a coin of standard weight issued by the government, exchangeable for smaller pieces, representing fractions of its value, which have notoriously less silver than they ought to have in order to justify and sustain their nominal value, is manifest from the commutability of silver halves at the present time (which have not perceptibly diminished in weight by rubbing) for smooth quarters, eighths, and sixteenths of a dollar, which are notoriously below the standard.

In fact, the currency of the small pieces would be sustained in a way analogous to that of bank-notes, with this difference, that only a fraction of the value would be confided to the faithfulness of the issuer.

I am of opinion that for the smaller change, metallic tokens, wholly dependent on commutability for value, would answer every purpose of gold or silver coin, without being liable to be carried off to pay a balance of trade arising from a famine, as in Great Britain in 1848, or in this country, by the fall of the price of cotton, as in 1837.

It would seem as if only one side of the question was stated as respects

the expediency of coining our golden dollars. I have found that the greater size and weight of the silver half-dollars is an inconvenience so much greater than that of the opposite attributes of the golden dollar, that while I can get gold dollars I shall never carry silver halves excepting for change. In order to obviate the greater liability for loss, it is only requisite to have suitable arrangements so as to keep the gold apart from the silver change. That to which I have resorted is an interior purse of leather within another of the same material. This affords three cavities,—the middle one for gold, one of the two remaining for larger, the other for smaller silver. The orifice of the inner purse, as well as that of the outer is furnished with a steel clasp, such as is used in common leather or steel purses.

Housekeepers find the gold dollars a great convenience. To travelers they are desirable, because a good supply prevents the necessity of taking as change those small notes with which they are unacquainted. H. H.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

POINTS DECIDED IN ENGLISH COURTS.

CARRIERS—LIABILITY OF RAILWAY COMPANY—SPECIAL CONTRACT.—In the Court of Queen's Bench. Appeals from County Court.—Sittings in Banc after Michaelmas Term, November 26, 1851. Chippendale *vs.* the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railroad Company.

The plaintiff placed several heifers on a track of a railway company, to be conveyed by them from W. to B. The plaintiff paid for their carriage, and received a ticket with the following memorandum subscribed:—"This ticket is issued subject to the owner taking all risks of conveyance whatever, as the company will not be responsible for any injury or damage, however caused, occurring to live stock of any description traveling upon the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, or in their vehicles." Owing to the defective construction of the truck, three heifers escaped; two were killed, and the other was injured. The plaintiff sued the railway company in a county court for the value of the three heifers, and the judge directed the jury to find a verdict for the defendants:—Held on appeal, (affirming the judgment below,) that the ticket constituted a special contract, which absolved the defendants from liability for the injury to the heifers.

FRAUD—EVIDENCE—POST-DATED CHECK—In the British Court of Exchequer. Appeal from County Court, December 1, 1851. Watson *vs.* Poulson.

If a man tells an untruth, knowing it to be such, in order to induce another to alter his condition, who does accordingly alter it, and thereby sustains damage, the party making the false statement is liable in an action for deceit, although in making the false representation no fraud or injury was intended by him.

A post-dated check on a bank is not absolutely void: if paid without knowledge of the false date the payment is good: and though not admissable in evidence to prove a contract, may be used to show fraud.

In Court of Common Pleas. Trinity Term, May 30, 1851. Stainbank *et al.*, *vs.* Fenning.

SHIP—HYPOTHECATION—POWERS OF THE MASTER—INSURABLE INTEREST.—1. The master of a ship borrowed money of the plaintiffs for repairs, and gave them, by way of security, bills drawn by him upon the owner of the ship and upon the consignee of the cargo, and also an instrument of hypothecation, by which he took upon himself and his owner the risk of the voyage, made the money repayable at all events, and the ship subject to seizure, and to process of the Admiralty Courts at any place, should the bills be not accepted or paid, the plaintiffs forbearing all interest beyond the amount necessary to insure the ship

to cover their advances:—Held, that a Court of Admiralty would not enforce this instrument; and, therefore, that the plaintiffs took no interest in the ship.

2. The master has no authority to hypothecate the ship to secure advances for repairs, unless repayment is made to depend on the arrival of the ship.

DESTRUCTION OF GOODS BY BLOWING THEM UP.

In the Court of Errors and Appeals of New Jersey. On error to the Supreme Court, November Term, 1851. The American Print Works *vs.* Lawrence; Hale *vs.* same.

In Trespass against the Mayor of New York for destroying goods by blowing them up, the defendant pleaded:—1. A statute of the State of New York imposing the duty upon the Mayor of New York, in order to stop the progress of any conflagration, with the concurrence of two Aldermen, to direct any buildings likely to take fire and convey fire to others, to be pulled down and destroyed. That the defendant, as Mayor, acting under such advice and concurrence, did destroy certain buildings for that purpose which were peculiarly exposed to the fire, and but for his action would have been immediately burned up with their contents, and would have communicated the flames to adjoining buildings unless instantly demolished. That the immediate destruction of these buildings was necessary, without waiting to remove the goods, in order to prevent the spread of the conflagration, &c., whereupon the defendant says he did necessarily and unavoidably blow up and destroy certain goods in plaintiffs' declaration mentioned, &c.:—Held to be a good plea.

2. The statute, under which the buildings were destroyed, being a constitutional and valid law, and the act by which they were destroyed being a lawful act, the defendant, as a public officer, was not liable personally for the necessary and unavoidable consequences of such act.

3. The defendant, secondly, set up a justification arising out of the common law doctrine of necessity. That to prevent the spread of the conflagration and the destruction of a large portion of the city, the immediate destruction of the buildings was necessary, without waiting to remove the goods therein: and that for this purpose the defendant, a resident citizen, &c., caused the said buildings to be blown up, and did thereby necessarily and unavoidably destroy the goods, &c.:—Held a good plea.

4. In order to justify the destruction of property under the plea of necessity, in order to prevent the spread of a conflagration, it is not necessary to show any individual or personal interest in the defendant in the property at stake.

5. The common law doctrine of necessity considered.

6. The exposition of the statutes of any State, by the courts of that State, ought to be regarded as of binding authority in the construction of such statutes by courts of other States.

CONSTITUTIONALITY OF THE PILOTAGE LAW OF THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

In the Supreme Court of the United States, December Term, 1851.

Aaron B. Cooley, plaintiff in error,
vs.
The Board of Wardens of the port of Philadelphia, to the use of the Society for the Relief of Distressed Pilots, their Widows and Children.

In error to the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, for the Eastern District.

Mr. Justice Curtis delivered the opinion of the Court.

These cases are brought here by writs of error to the Supreme Court of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

They are actions to recover half-pilotage fees under the 29th section of the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, passed on the second day of March, 1803. The plaintiff in error alleges that the highest court of the State has decided

against a right claimed by him under the Constitution of the United States. That right is to be exempted from the payment of the sums of money demanded pursuant to the State law above referred to, because that law contravenes several provisions of the Constitution of the United States.

The particular section of the State law drawn in question is as follows:—

"That every ship or vessel arriving from or bound to any foreign port or place, and every ship or vessel of the burden of seventy-five tons or more, sailing from or bound to any port not within the river Delaware, shall be obliged to receive a pilot. And it shall be the duty of the master of every such ship or vessel, within thirty-six hours next after the arrival of such ship or vessel at the city of Philadelphia, to make report to the Master Warden of the name of such ship or vessel, her draught of water, and the name of the pilot who shall have conducted her to the port. And when any such vessel shall be outward bound, the master of such vessel shall make known to the Wardens the name of such vessel, and of the pilot who is to conduct her to the Capes, and her draught of water at that time. And it shall be the duty of the Wardens to enter every such vessel in a book to be by them kept for that purpose, without fee or reward. And if the master of any ship or vessel shall neglect to make such report, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of sixty dollars. And if the master of any such ship or vessel shall refuse or neglect to take a pilot, the master, owner, or consignee of such vessel shall forfeit and pay to the Warden aforesaid a sum equal to the half-pilotage of such ship or vessel, to the use of the Society for the Relief, &c., to be recovered as pilotage in the manner hereinafter directed: *Provided*, always, that where it shall appear to the Warden that, in case of an inward bound vessel, a pilot did not offer before she had reached Reedy Island; or, in case of an outward bound vessel, that a pilot could not be obtained for twenty-four hours after such vessel was ready to depart, the penalty aforesaid, for not having a pilot, shall not be incurred." It constitutes one section of "an act to establish a Board of Wardens for the port of Philadelphia, and for the regulation of Pilots and Pilotage, &c.," and the scope of the act is in conformity with the title to regulate the whole subject of the pilotage of that port.

We think this particular regulation, concerning half-pilotage fees, is an appropriate part of a general system of regulations of this subject. Testing it by the practice of commercial States and countries legislating on this subject, we find it has usually been deemed necessary to make similar provisions. Numerous laws of this kind are cited in the learned argument of the counsel for the defendant in error; and their fitness, as a part of a system of pilotage, in many places, may be inferred from their existence in so many different States and countries. Like other laws, they are framed to meet the most usual cases, *quæ frequentius accidunt;* they rest upon the propriety of securing lives and property exposed to the perils of a dangerous navigation, by taking on board a person peculiarly skilled to encounter or avoid them; upon the policy of discouraging the commanders of vessels from refusing to receive such persons on board at the proper times and places; and upon the expediency and even intrinsic justice of not suffering those who have incurred labor, and expense, and danger, to place themselves in a position to render important service generally necessary, to go unrewarded, because the master of a particular vessel either rashly refuses their proffered assistance, or, contrary to the general experience, does not need it. There are many cases in which an offer to perform, accompanied by present ability to perform, is deemed by law equivalent to performance. The laws of commercial States and countries have made an offer of pilotage service one of those cases: and we cannot pronounce a law which does this to be so far removed from the usual and fit scope of laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage, as to be deemed, for this cause, a covert attempt to legislate upon another subject under the appearance of legislating on this one.

It is urged that the second section of the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania of the 11th of June, 1832, proves that the State had other objects in view than the regulation of pilotage. That section is as follows:—

"And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of July next, no health fee or half-pilotage shall be charged on any American vessel engaged in the Pennsylvania coal trade."

It must be remarked that the fair objects of a law imposing half-pilotage when a pilot is not received, may be secured, and at the same time some classes of vessels exempted from such a charge. Thus, the very section of the act of 1803, now under consideration, does not apply to coasting vessels of less burden than seventy-five tons, nor to those bound to or sailing from a port in the river Delaware. The purpose of the law being to cause masters of such vessels as generally need a pilot to employ one, and to secure to the pilots a fair remuneration for cruising in search of vessels, or waiting for employment in port, there is an obvious propriety in having reference to the number, size, and nature of the employment of vessels frequenting the port; and it will be found, by an examination of the different system of these regulations which have from time to time been made in this and other countries, that the legislative discretion has been constantly exercised in making discriminations, founded on differences both in the character of the trade, and the tonnage of the vessels engaged therein.

We do not perceive any thing in the nature, or extent of this particular discrimination in favor of vessels engaged in the coal trade, which would enable us to declare it to be other than a fair exercise of legislative discretion, acting upon the subject of the regulation of the pilotage of this port of Philadelphia, with a view to operate upon the masters of those vessels, who, as a general rule, ought to take a pilot, and with the further view of relieving from the charge of half-pilotage, such vessels, as from their size, or the nature of their employment, should be exempted from contributing to the support of pilots, except so far as they actually receive their services. In our judgment, though this law of 1832 has undoubtedly modified the 29th section of the act of 1803, and both are to be taken together as giving the rule on this subject of half-pilotage, yet this change in the rule has not changed the nature of the law, nor deprived it of the character and attributes of a law for the regulation of pilotage.

Nor do we consider that the appropriation of the sums received under this section of the act, to the use of the Society for the Relief of Distressed and Decayed Pilots, their Widows and Children, has any legitimate tendency to impress on it the character of a revenue law. Whether these sums shall go directly to the use of the individual pilots by whom the service is tendered, or shall form a common fund to be administered by trustees for the benefit of such pilots and their families as may stand in peculiar need of it, is a matter resting in legislative discretion, in the proper exercise of which the pilots alone are interested.

For these reasons we cannot yield our assent to the argument, that this provision of law is in conflict with the second and third clauses of the tenth section of the first article of the Constitution, which prohibit a State, without the assent of Congress, from laying any imposts or duties on imports, or exports, or tonnage. This provision of the Constitution was intended to operate upon subjects actually existing and well understood when the Constitution was formed. Imposts and duties on imports, exports, and tonnage, were then known to the Commerce of the civilized world to be as distinct from fees and charges for pilotage, and from the penalties by which commercial States enforced their pilot laws, as they were from charges for wharfage, or towage, or any other local port charges for services rendered to vessels or cargoes; and to declare that such pilot fees or penalties are embraced within the words imposts or duties on imports, exports, or tonnage, would be to confound things essentially different, and which must have been known to be actually different, by those who used this language. It cannot be denied that a tonnage duty or an impost on imports or exports may be levied under the name of pilot dues or penalties; and certainly it is the thing and not the name which is to be considered. But having previously stated that in this instance the law complained of does not pass the appropriate line which limits

laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage, the suggestion that this law levies a duty on tonnage, or on imports, or exports, is not admissible; and if so, it also follows that this law is not repugnant to the first clause of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution, which declares that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States; for if it is not to be deemed a law levying a duty, impost, or excise, the want of uniformity throughout the United States is not objectionable. Indeed, the necessity of conforming regulations of pilotage to the local peculiarities of each port, and the consequent impossibility of having its charges uniform throughout the United States, would be sufficient of itself to prove that they could not have been intended to be embraced within this clause of the Constitution; for it cannot be supposed uniformity was required, when it must have been known to be impracticable.

It is further objected that this law is repugnant to the fifth clause of the ninth section of the first article of the Constitution; namely, "No preference shall be given by any regulation of Commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels, to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another."

But, as already stated, pilotage fees are not duties within the meaning of the Constitution; and certainly Pennsylvania does not give a preference to the port of Philadelphia, by requiring the masters, owners, or consignees of vessels sailing to or from that port, to pay the charges imposed by the 29th section of the act of 1803. It is an objection to and not a ground of preference of a port, that a charge of this kind must be borne by vessels entering it, and accordingly the interests of the port require, and generally produce such alleviations of these charges, as its growing Commerce from time to time renders consistent with the general policy of the pilot laws. This State, by its act of the 24th of March, 1851, has essentially modified the law of 1803, and further exempted many vessels from the charge now in question. Similar changes may be observed in the laws of New York, Massachusetts, and other commercial States, and they undoubtedly spring from the conviction that burdens of this kind, instead of operating to give a preference to a port, tend to check its Commerce, and that sound policy requires them to be lessened and removed as early as the necessities of the system will allow.

In addition to what has been said respecting each of these constitutional objections to this law, it may be observed that similar laws have existed, and been practiced on in the States since the adoption of the Federal Constitution; that by the act of the 7th of August, 1789, (1 Stat. at Large, 54,) Congress declared that all pilots in the bays, inlets, rivers, harbors, and ports of the United States, shall continue to be regulated in conformity with the existing laws of the States, &c., and that this contemporaneous construction of the Constitution, since acted on with such uniformity, in a matter of much public interest and importance, is entitled to great weight, in determining whether such a law is repugnant to the Constitution, as levying a duty not uniform throughout the United States, or as giving a preference to the ports of one State over those of another, or as obliging vessels to or from one State to enter, clear, or pay duties in another. Stuart *vs.* Laird, 1 Cranch, 299; Martin *vs.* Hunter, 1 Whea., 304; Cohen *vs.* Commonwealth of Virginia, 6 Whea. 264; Prigg *vs.* Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 16 Peters, 621.

The opinion of the court is, that the law now in question is not repugnant to either of the above mentioned clauses of the Constitution.

It remains to consider the objection that it is repugnant to the third clause of the eighth section of the first article:—"The Congress shall have power to regulate Commerce with foreign nations and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes."

That the power to regulate Commerce includes the regulation of navigation, we consider settled. And when we look to the nature of the service performed by pilots, to the relation which that service and its compensations bear to navigation between the several States, and between the ports of the United States

and foreign countries, we are brought to the conclusion that the regulation of the qualifications of pilots, of the modes and times of offering and rendering their services, of the responsibilities which shall rest upon them, of the powers they shall possess, of the compensation they may demand, and of the penalties by which their rights and duties may be enforced, do constitute regulations of navigation, and consequently of Commerce, within the just meaning of the clause of the Constitution.

The power to regulate navigation is the power to prescribe rules in conformity with which navigation must be carried on. It extends to the persons who conduct it, as well as to the instruments used. Accordingly, the first Congress assembled under the Constitution, passed laws requiring the masters of ships and vessels of the United States to be citizens of the United States, and established many rules for the government and regulation of officers and seamen. (1 Stats. at Large, 55, 131.) These have been from time to time added to and changed; and we are not aware that their validity has been questioned.

Now, a pilot, so far as respects the navigation of the vessel in that part of the voyage which is his pilotage ground, is the temporary master charged with the safety of the vessel and cargo and of the lives of those on board, and intrusted with the command of the crew. He is not only one of the persons engaged in navigation, but he occupies a most important and responsible place among those thus engaged. And if Congress has power to regulate the seamen who assist the pilot in the management of the vessel, a power never denied, we can perceive no valid reason why the pilot should be beyond the reach of the same power. It is true, that according to the usages of modern Commerce on the ocean, the pilot is on board only during a part of the voyage between ports of different states, or between ports of the United States and foreign countries, but if he is on board for such a purpose and during so much of the voyage as to be engaged in navigation, the power to regulate navigation extends to him while thus engaged, as clearly as it would if he were to reman on board throughout the whole passage from port to port. For it is a power which extends to every part of the voyage, and may regulate those who conduct, or assist in conducting navigation in one part of a voyage as much as in another part, or during the whole voyage.

Nor should it be lost sight of, that this subject of the regulation of pilots and pilotage, has an intimate connection with, and an important relation to the general subject of Commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, over which it was one main object of the Constitution to create a national control. Conflicts between the laws of neighboring states, and discriminations, favorable, or adverse to Commerce, with particular foreign nations might be created by State laws regulating pilotage, deeply affecting that equality of commercial rights, and that freedom from State interference, which those who formed the Constitution were so anxious to secure, and which the experience of more than half a century has taught us to value so highly. The apprehension of this danger is not speculative merely, for in 1837, Congress actually interposed to relieve the Commerce of the country from serious embarrassment, arising from the laws of different States, situate upon waters which are the boundary between them. This was done by an enactment of the 2d March, 1837, in the following words:—

"Be it enacted, that it shall and may be lawful for the master or commander of any vessel, coming into or going out of any port situate upon waters which are the boundary between two States, to employ any pilot duly licensed or authorized by the laws of either of the States bounded on the said waters, to pilot said vessel to or from said port—any law, usage, or custom, to the contrary notwithstanding."

The act of 1789, (1 Stat. at Large 54,) already referred to, contains a clear legislative exposition of the Constitution by the first Congress, to the effect that the power to regulate pilots was conferred on Congress by the Constitution; as does also the act of March the 2d, 1837, the terms of which have just been given. The weight to be allowed to this contemporaneous construction, and the prac-

tice of Congress under it, has, in another construction, been adverted to. And a majority of the court are of opinion, that a regulation of pilots is a regulation of Commerce, within the grant to Congress of the commercial power, contained in the third clause of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution.

It becomes necessary, therefore, to consider whether this law of Pennsylvania, being a regulation of Commerce, is valid.

The act of Congress of the 7th of August, 1789, sec. 4, is as follows:—

"That all pilots in the bays, inlets, rivers, harbors, and ports of the United States, shall continue to be regulated in conformity with the existing laws of the States, respectively, wherein such pilots may be, or with such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for the purpose, until further legislative provision shall be made by Congress."

If the law of Pennsylvania, now in question, had been in existence at the date of this act of Congress, we might hold it to have been adopted by Congress, and thus made a law of the United States, and so valid. Because this act does, in effect, give the force of an act of Congress, to the then existing State laws on this subject, so long as they should continue unrepealed by the State which enacted them.

But the law on which these actions are founded was not enacted till 1803. What effect then can be attributed to so much of the act of 1789, as declares, that pilots shall continue to be regulated in conformity "*with such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for the purpose, until further legislative provision shall be made by Congress.*"

If the States were divested of the power to legislate on this subject by the grant of the commercial power to Congress, it is plain this act could not confer upon them power thus to legislate. If the Constitution excluded the States from making any law regulating Commerce, certainly Congress cannot regrant in any manner or reconvey to the States that power. And yet this act of 1789 gives its sanction only to laws enacted by the States. This necessarily implies a constitutional power to legislate; for only a rule created by the sovereign power of a State, acting in its legislative capacity, can be deemed a law enacted by a State; and if the State has so limited its sovereign power that it no longer extends to a particular subject, manifestly it cannot, in any proper sense, be said to enact laws thereon.

Entertaining these views we are brought directly and unavoidably to the consideration of the question, whether the grant of the commercial power to Congress, did *per se* deprive the States of all power to regulate pilots. This question has never been decided by this court, nor, in our judgment, has any case depending upon all the considerations which must govern this one, come before this court. The grant of commercial power to Congress does not contain any terms which expressly exclude the States from exercising any authority over its subject matter. If they are excluded it must be because the nature of the power, thus granted to Congress, requires that a similar authority should not exist in the States. If it were conceded on the one side, that the nature of this power, like that to legislate for the District of Columbia, is absolutely and totally repugnant to the existence of similar power in the States, probably no one would deny that the grant of the power to Congress, as effectually and perfectly excludes the States from all future legislation on the subject, as if express words had been used to exclude them.

And on the other hand, if it were admitted that the existence of this power in Congress, like the power of taxation, is compatible with the existence of a similar power in the States, then it would be in conformity with the contempory exposition of the Constitution, (Federalist No. 32,) and with the judicial construction, given from time to time by this court, after the most deliberate consideration, to hold that the mere grant of such a power to Congress, did not imply a prohibition on the States to exercise the same power; that it is not the mere existence of such a power, but its exercise by Congress, which may be incompatible with the exercise of the same power by the States, and that the States

may legislate in the absence of Congressional regulations. Sturgis *vs.* Crowinshield, 4 Whea. 193, Houston *vs.* Moore, 5 Whea. 1, Wilson *vs.* Blackbird Creek Co., 2 Peters, 251.

The diversities of opinion, therefore, which have existed on this subject, have arisen from the different views taken of the nature of this power. But when the nature of a power like this is spoken of, when it is said that the nature of the power requires that it should be exercised exclusively by Congress, it must be intended to refer to the subjects of that power, and to say they are of such a nature as to require exclusive legislation by Congress. Now the power to regulate Commerce, embraces a vast field, containing not only many, but exceedingly various subjects quite unlike in their nature; some imperatively demanding a single uniform rule, operating equally on the Commerce of the United States in every port; and some, like the subject now in question, as imperatively demanding that diversity, which alone can meet the local necessities of navigation.

Either absolutely to affirm, or deny that the nature of this power requires exclusive legislation by Congress, is to lose sight of the nature of the subjects of this power, and to assert concerning all of them, what is really applicable but to a part. Whatever subjects of this power are in their nature national, or admit of only one uniform system, or plan of regulation, may justly be said to be of such a nature as to require exclusive legislation by Congress. That this cannot be affirmed of laws for the regulation of pilots and pilotage is plain. The act of 1789 contains a clear and authoritative declaration by the first Congress, that the nature of this subject is such, that until Congress should find it necessary to exert its power, it should be left to the legislation of the States; that it is local and not national; that it is likely to be best provided for, not by one system or plan of regulations, but by as many as the legislative discretion of the several States should deem applicable to the local peculiarities of the ports within their limits.

Viewed in this light, so much of this act of 1789 as declares that pilots shall continue to be regulated "by such laws as the States may respectively hereafter enact for that purpose." instead of being held to be inoperative, as an attempt to confer on the States a power to legislate, of which the Constitution had deprived them, is allowed an appropriate and important signification. It manifests the understanding of Congress, at the outset of the government, that the nature of this subject is not such as to require its exclusive legislation. The practice of the States, and of the national government, has been in conformity with this declaration, from the origin of the national government to this time; and the nature of the subject when examined, is such as to leave no doubt of the superior fitness and propriety, not to say the absolute necessity, of different systems of regulation, drawn from local knowledge or experience, and conformed to local wants. How then can we say, that by the mere grant of power to regulate Commerce, the States are deprived of all power to legislate on this subject, because from the nature of the power the legislation of Congress must be exclusive. This would be to affirm that the nature of the power is in any case, something different from the nature of the subject to which, in such case, the power extends, and that the nature of the power necessarily demands, in all cases, exclusive legislation by Congress, while the nature of one of the subjects of that power, not only does not require such exclusive legislation, but may be best provided for by many different systems enacted by the States, in conformity with the circumstances of the ports within their limits. In constructing an instrument designed for the formation of a government, and in determining the extent of one of its important grants of power to legislate, we can make no such distinction between the nature of the power and the nature of the subject on which that power was intended practically to operate, nor consider the grant more extensive by affirming of the power, what is not true of its subject now in question.

It is the opinion of the majority of the court that the mere grant to Congress of the power to regulate Commerce, did not deprive the States of power to

regulate pilots; and that although Congress has legislated on this subject, its legislation manifests an intention, with a single exception, not to regulate this subject, but to leave its regulation to the several States. To these precise questions, which are all we are called on to decide, this opinion must be understood to be confined. It does not extend to the question what other subjects, under the commercial power are within the exclusive control of Congress, or may be regulated by the States in the absence of all Congressional legislation; nor to the general question how far any regulation of a subject by Congress, may be deemed to operate as an exclusion of all legislation by the States upon the same subject. We decide the precise questions before us, upon what we deem sound principles, applicable to this particular subject in the state in which the legislation of Congress has left it. We go no further.

We have not adverted to the practical consequences of holding that the States possess no power to legislate for the regulation of pilots, though in our apprehension these would be of the most serious importance. For more than sixty years this subject has been acted on by the States, and the systems of some of them created, and of others essentially modified during that period. To hold that pilotage fees and penalties demanded and received during that time, have been illegally exacted, under color of void laws, would work an amount of mischief which a clear conviction of constitutional duty, if entertained, must force us to occasion, but which could be viewed by no just mind without deep regret. Nor would the mischief be limited to the past. If Congress were now to pass a law adopting the existing State laws, if enacted without authority, and in violation of the Constitution, it would seem to us to be a new and questionable mode of legislation.

If the grant of commercial power in the Constitution has deprived the States of all power to legislate for the regulation of pilots, if their laws on this subject are mere usurpations upon the exclusive power of the general government, and utterly void, it may be doubted whether Congress could, with propriety, recognize them as laws, and adopt them as its own acts, and how are the legislatures of the States to proceed in future, to watch over and amend these laws, as the progressive wants of a growing Commerce will require, when the members of those legislatures are made aware that they cannot legislate on this subject without violating the oaths they have taken to support the Constitution of the United States.

We are of opinion that this State law was enacted by virtue of a power, residing in the State to legislate; that it is not in conflict with any law of Congress, that it does not interfere with any system which Congress has established by making regulations, or by intentionally leaving individuals to their own unrestricted action; that this law is therefore valid, and the judgment of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in each case must be affirmed.

LOSS OF A BAGGAGE CHECK BY A PASSENGER DOES NOT RELIEVE A RAILROAD COMPANY FROM LIABILITY.

In the First District Court, (New York City, 1852.) Judge Green presiding. Patrick Cass *vs.* The New York and New Haven Railroad Company.

This was an action to recover $100 00, the value of a trunk and contents placed in possession of the baggage-keeper, in June last, but not delivered. It appears that Bedura Ann Kelley took the cars at Stamford, Connecticut, for New York, gave her trunk to the agent of the cars and received a check for it, but lost the check on the road; and the agent on the arrival of the cars at Canal street, refused to deliver the trunk to her, although she pointed it out to him and told him she had lost the ticket; also, that she could not read and did not know the number of the ticket. She again demanded the trunk, but he refused, and she asked him to keep it for her till she called for it. She being sick was subsequently taken to Bellevue Hospital, and did not leave there for five months. When she came out she sold and assigned the trunk and contents to plaintiff, who went with her to the depot and demanded the trunk of the managing agent, but on search being made it could not be found.

The Judge held that in common law, the railroad company is liable for the loss of baggage intrusted to their care, and the giving a check to a passenger designating the number of the baggage was intended to furnish the passenger with additional security, and the loss of the check does not relieve the company from liability, unless some other person presents the check, and in good faith and without notice the baggage is delivered to the party so offering the check. Nothing of the kind was shown here, and the plaintiff is entitled to judgment for $100 (being amount of claim) and costs.

ACTION FOR BREACH OF CONTRACT TO DELIVER PART OF A CARGO OF GUM.

When a contract is made between two firms to purchase goods on joint account, but bought in the name of only one of them, the original terms of purchase cannot be varied without consent—and the silent party is entitled to his proportion of the gross bulk, at the price and upon the terms originally contracted for.

Court of Common Pleas, New York, before Judge Woodruff, May, 1852. Davenport *vs.* Tilden and Blodgett, in action for a breach of contract to deliver to plaintiff part of a cargo of gum copal.

The transaction occurred in September, 1850, at which time a cargo of gum copal, belonging to Grinnell, Minturn & Co., was on board the ship Emily, lying at this port. The defendants and a Mr. Gillespie, agent for the plaintiff, both wished to purchase it, and thinking it might be got on better terms if but one of the parties offered for it, the defendants entered into a written contract with the plaintiff, through his agent, Gillespie, by which they agreed that, if they bought the cargo, they would sell to Davenport & Co. from 30,000 lbs. to 40,000 lbs. of it, at the same price, and on the same terms and proportion, as they would pay for it themselves. From the evidence for the defendants, it appeared that when Gillespie was negotiating the contract for the plaintiff, he informed the defendants that Davenport & Co. were a house in this city, which was not the fact, Mr. Davenport having no partner, nor ever intimated that he had one. As the parties did not wish Grinnell & Co. to know that the cargo was purchased on their joint account, it was agreed that the plaintiff should not be delivered his part of it on shipboard, and the whole cargo was brought on shore and stored by the defendants. From the time the purchase was thus consummated by the defendants, until early in the following December, various interviews took place between the plaintiff and defendants in relation to his claim for half the cargo, which the defendants would not deliver, except on terms which the plaintiff would not accede to. The defendants alleged that they had contracted to sell the gum not to the plaintiff alone, or on his credit only, but to the firm of Davenport & Co., and that they would not take his paper for it. The defendants also alleged that in their bargain with Grinnell, Minturn & Co., although they were to have a credit of six months, they also had the option of paying cash and receiving a discount, and that they would pay cash, and the plaintiff must do so also. After various negotiations on the subject, the defendants, early in December, notified Davenport & Co., that they were ready to deliver the gum on received approved paper for it, and if Davenport & Co. did not comply with this offer, they would consider the contract at an end. The defendants purchased the gum at 10¼ cents, and it appeared that from September to February good gum could be purchased for 9¼ cents, at six and eight months, but shortly after it rose 10 per cent.

The Court charged the jury. The first question which they had to determine was whether the defendants made the contract as set forth in the complaint. It was not denied by defendants that they had signed the paper which was read in evidence. But it is denied that by this writing the defendants entered into a contract with plaintiff alone. On the contrary, it is said that it was made with two persons at least, and on the credit of more than one individual.

If the contract was made with Davenport and another, the plaintiff cannot maintain his action in his own sole name, in the absence of a transfer to him of the interest of his co-contractor. On this part of the case, the court had to let in evidence in order to see if Davenport & Co. meant only J. D. Davenport and no one else; add whether J. D. Davenport was in fact the only party for whom

the agreement had been made; or whether putting in the word "company" was a mistake of which he could avail himself in carrying out the contract. The testimony of the plaintiff, to which there is no contradiction, shows that whatever may have been the representations of Mr. Gillespie, or however it was understood by Tilden, in point of fact, the plaintiff had no partner, and the agreement was only for his own benefit, and not that of any one else. And if so, although the defendant may not be bound by it if there was any misrepresentation, still, if it is a fact that Davenport had no partner, he is, therefore, a proper party to stand here in court and assert his right to the performance of this agreement. But if the defendants contracted on the credit of a firm, and on the representations of plaintiff's agent that he or other persons were partners of Davenport, the defendants were not bound to deliver the property on the credit of one person only. And I do not understand that defendant ever refused to deliver the gum on a demand made in the name of Davenport & Co., or that the plaintiff ever claimed it on the credit of Davenport & Co. But if your reflections lead you to the conclusion that from the position of Davenport's agent, Gillespie, and the knowledge which Tilden had on the subject, the agreement was intended and understood by the parties, to be between the defendants and plaintiff alone, then it is my duty to say that the defendants, on effecting a purchase of the cargo, were bound to sell not less than 30,000 lbs. of it to the plaintiff, on the same terms as they paid for it; and also, that the plaintiff was entitled to an equal proportion of it in respect to quality, and on the same terms of sale as the defendants made with Grinnell, Minturn & Co., from whom they purchased it. And the subsequent agreement between Tilden and Grinnell, that Tilden might pay cash and receive a discount, could not affect the plaintiff's right. It was said that Tilden could make an after arrangement, by which he was to pay cash, and then say to Davenport that he should also pay cash; but, according to the terms of the contract, if the sale was made at six months' credit on the purchaser's own note, then the plaintiff was entitled to receive his portion of the cargo from Tilden, at six months' credit on his own note. Because it was the duty of the seller, before he made the agreement, to inquire whether Davenport was entitled to have it on his own note. If you come to the conclusion that Tilden was entitled to have the notes of Davenport & Co., and that Davenport did not comply with the contract by offering such notes, then you must find for the defendants. If you find for the plaintiff, you will give him the difference between the price at which the defendants agreed to sell, and the market value of gum of like quality and quantity at the time it was deliverable according to the contract.

The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff—damages $184.

SUIT FOR COLLISION.

In the United States District Court, May 22d, 1852. Before Judge Judson. Charles E. Kelsey and another, *vs.* the schooner William Kallahan.

The schooner Archelaus, Charles E. Kelsey master, on the night of the 13th of October, 1851, that being a bright and clear moonlight night, was beating her way down the North River, W. S. W., flood tide, close hauled on her starboard tack, five points on the wind, full and by. At the same time the schooner W. Kallahan, P. M'Dermot master, was laying her course up the river, with the wind free, heading rather towards the New Jersey shore. The two vessels were seen by each at the distance of about half a mile. The collision took place west of the middle of the river, at a point about two-thirds over from the east shore. The Archelaus was struck on her lee bow, between her stem and fore rigging, going down immediately, and proved a total loss.

Two questions have arisen:—1st. Has the court jurisdiction of the subject matter of the controversy? On this point the facts are admitted, and out of this admission the question is raised. The collision occurred on the North River, within the Southern District of New York. At the precise time when the libel was filed in the clerk's office, the schooner W. Kallahan was on a voyage from Albany to Philadelphia, and was not within the Southern District of New York

—and that, at a subsequent day, she came within the district, and was here attached by the process on this libel, and is now responding to the libel.

The time of service of process is the true period of the commencement of a suit, and the jurisdiction attaches to the case from that day. The cause is therefore properly here.

2d. On whom shall the loss fall is the next question. After ascertaining the position of each vessel, as above stated, there is one important fact proved to the entire satisfaction of the court, which must be deemed a controlling fact in the case.

At the time of the collision, the schooner William Kallahan had no sufficient look-out. The man placed forward was part way down the ladder of the forecastle, and did not descry the Archelaus, and gave no order to the man at the wheel of the approach of danger. It was peculiarly his duty and business, in a place like that, to have remained at his post, and there is no doubt that if he had been at his post, the collision would not have occurred.

As a strong corroborating fact, it appears that the man at the helm, immediately upon the accident, found fault with the look-out because timely notice had not been given him, and in his testimony he adds, that the sails of his vessel prevented his seeing the Archelaus until she was about being struck.

The rule of law is well settled, that a vessel with the wind free must give way in time to a vessel close hauled on the wind, and that a vessel so sailing should not only have a look-out, but that he should do his proper duty.

The evidence in the case shows that the fault rests with the William Kallahan, and she must stand responsible for the consequences.

Decree for libellants, with reference to a commissioner to ascertain the damage.

DAMAGES FOR INJURIES RECEIVED IN RAILROAD CARS.

An action was brought before Judge Campbell, in the New York Superior Court, by Patrick Carroll against the New York and New Haven Railroad Company, to recover damages for injuries received while riding in the cars of that company.

It appeared that, on the 25th of October, 1851, the plaintiff took his seat in the express train, with a ticket for New Rochelle, but as that train did not stop there, he was carried on to Stamford; and the conductor gave him a free ticket back to New Rochelle. Plaintiff got into the return train, which came into collision with a freight train, running out of time. Some of the brakemen on the forward part of the train were killed, and the plaintiff, being in the baggage car, was severely injured.

The defendants admit their negligence in running their trains out of time, but they also charge negligence upon the part of the plaintiff, in leaving the seat in the passenger car, which had been provided for him, and going into the baggage car, a place of danger, contrary to the rules in the printed notices in the cars. They also rely upon the fact that the plaintiff was a passenger gratuitously.

The court charged the jury that the defendants were bound to carry their passengers with safety, using the utmost care and diligence, so far as human foresight could provide. If the plaintiff was in the cars as a free passenger, that will qualify the responsibility; still, if he was there with license, they are responsible. The defendants' negligence is not denied, but if both parties are alike guilty of negligence, the plaintiff cannot recover. But the negligence of the plaintiff must concur directly with the injury; it must contribute directly, not remotely, not consequentially, to produce the injury. For instance, if the baggage had fallen upon him, and injured him, while in the baggage car, he would have been guilty of negligence. You will consider whether there was negligence on the part of the plaintiff. Admitting, also, that he was in an unsafe place, contrary to the rules of the company, you will consider whether he was not in there with the assent and knowledge of the conductor; if so, he was not there wrongfully. If you find that the plaintiff was not guilty of any negligence

which concurred to produce this injury, the defendants are liable. Verdict for plaintiff, $4,000.

ACTION TO RECOVER MERCHANDISE WRONGFULLY DETAINED.

In the Superior Court, New York, May 4th, 1852, before Judge Oakley. David Dows and Ira B. Carey *vs.* James B. Perrin and M. M. Caleb.

This was an action to recover possession of 4,823 bushels of corn wrongfully detained by defendants, as alleged in complaint.

The defendants answer, denying any title to the property in the plaintiffs, but affirming that it belonged to one L. W. Brainard, and that defendant Perrin was captain of the canal-boat, on board of which the corn was shipped.

It appeared that, August 7th, 1848, one Bloss negotiated with Niles & Wheeler, produce and forwarding merchants at Buffalo, for this corn, agreed upon the terms, and obtained the refusal of it for a few days. Soon, Bloss returned to the store with one J. F. Mack, and took from the clerk of Niles & Wheeler bills of lading of the corn, in the name of Mack, and consigned to the plaintiffs. The corn was shipped to New York in the boat of defendant Perrin, and the bills of lading were transmitted to the plaintiffs, who thereupon made advances to Mack, to the amount of the value of the property, upon the agreement that the same had been forwarded to them. Soon after Mack, who had for ten years before been engaged in business in Rochester, and dealing with plaintiffs, absconded. Niles & Wheeler then telegraphed to plaintiffs that the corn had not been paid for, and, requesting them to hold the same to their account, immediately resold it to P. Durfee & Co., and gave them the bill of lading, which by intermediate indorsements came into the hands of Brainard, whom defendants claim to be the owner. The defendant, Caleb, is the partner of Niles & Wheeler, in New York.

It was contended that the clerk of Niles & Wheeler had no authority to make out the bills of lading, and consequently the sale to Mack was invalid.

The Court charged the jury that Niles and Wheeler, by giving these bills of lading, transferred the property to Mack; and that as the plaintiffs had made advances upon these papers, the sale was to be deemed valid if the clerk had the power to sign the papers. The jury were, therefore, to consider whether the act of the clerk, in signing the papers and delivering them to Mack, was done by authority of Niles and Wheeler, either express or implied. No express authority is shown; but if he was held out to the world as an agent, in doing acts countenanced by the principal; if he was in the habit of signing and delivering such papers, the law implies an authority. Again, the law implies an authority where there is a recognition of an act after it is done. Niles & Wheeler, in this case, telegraphed to plaintiffs that they had stopped the corn, and that it had not been paid for. The jury will consider whether this amounts to a recognition of the right of the clerk to ship the corn, and make the proper papers to the plaintiffs. If, from all the facts in the case, you conclude the authority existed, you will find for the plaintiffs.

Verdict for the plaintiffs, $2,794 for amount, and $723 damages for detention.

PROMISSORY NOTES—INDORSERS.

In the Superior Court, May 24, 1852, before Judge Sanford. John D. Williams *vs.* Isaac T. Storm and others.

This was an action upon five promissory notes, made by the Empire Mills, December 10, 1850, amounting to $10,000, payable to defendant, indorsed by defendant and Austens & Spicer, to plaintiff.

The defendants contend that the notes were indorsed for the accommodation of the makers, without consideration, and that they were negotiated at usurious rates of interest.

It appeared in evidence that there had been previous dealings between the

makers and indorsers; the makers having consigned to the indorsers large quantities of wool, for which the indorsers of these notes had given their acceptances to the Empire Mills, the makers in this case; that at length the indorsers had told them that they could not take any more, and thereupon charged the balance on hand to them. The Empire Mills then made these notes, declaring on the face of them, that they were given for this wool, and got them discounted at 12 per cent.

Upon this evidence the Court directed a verdict for plaintiff, subject to the opinion of the Court.

COMMON CARRIER—BILL OF LADING.

In the Supreme Court, New York, April 26, 1852. Before Judge Roosevelt. Henry Gilbert *vs.* Charles Folger and others.

The plaintiff alleges that he delivered to defendants twenty-seven packages of goods to be forwarded by them to Buffalo, and shows a bill of lading, signed by defendants, acknowledging their receipt; but alleges that only twenty-five reached their destination. He brings suit to recover for the value of the two missing packages, and damages.

The defendants answer that only twenty-five packages were in fact received by them, and aver that they gave a bill of lading for twenty-seven by mistake.

The court instructed the jury that the bill of lading was not conclusive, but between the parties, was open to explanation and alteration. But it is incumbent on the defendants to show that it was made by mistake; and it is for you to consider whether they have conclusively explained it. You have the testimony of the carman that he delivered twenty-seven packages; while opposed to this is the written evidence of the pass-books and the manifest, together with that of the captain of the barge, showing that there were only twenty-five. It further appears that plaintiff requested defendants to enter twenty-seven instead of twenty-five in the bill of lading, although in fact the remaining two had not been brought down to them, as he was in haste to leave that evening. If you conclude that the bill of lading is wrong, the defendants are not liable. Verdict for defendants.

LIABILITIES OF HUSBANDS FOR DEBTS, ETC., OF THEIR WIVES.

The following are sections of an "act in relation to the liabilities of husbands for the debts and contracts of their wives contracted before marriage," passed at the last session of the Legislature of Maine, and approved by the Governor April 26, 1852.

SEC. 1. Hereafter when any man shall marry, his property shall be exempt from any and all liabilities for the debts or contracts of his wife made or contracted before marriage; but an action to recover the same may be maintained against such husband and wife, and the property of said wife held in her own right, if any, shall alone be subject to attachment, levy, or sale on execution, to satisfy all liabilities for such debts and contracts, in the same manner as if she were unmarried.

SEC. 2. In any such action the wife may defend alone or jointly with her husband, but no arrest of the person of such husband or wife shall be authorized upon any writ or execution arising under this act.

SEC. 3. Any married woman under the age of twenty-one years shall have, and may exercise, all the rights, privileges and powers enumerated in the several acts now in force, securing to married women their rights in property, in the same manner, and with the same effect, as though she were of full age.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its approval by the Governor.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

ABUNDANCE OF CAPITAL AND GENERAL PROSPERITY—SALE OF RAILROAD BONDS—EFFECT OF THE INCREASED PRODUCTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS UPON THE COMMERCIAL VALUE OF OTHER COMMODITIES—PRICES OF PRODUCE IN THE PAST HAVE NOT BEEN DEPENDENT UPON THE SUPPLY OF COIN—ILLUSTRATIONS OF THIS STATEMENT BY COMPARATIVE TABLES—EXPLANATION OF THE CAUSE OF SUCH FLUCTUATIONS—THE TRUE SOURCE OF NATIONAL PROSPERITY—FREE TRADE AND PROTECTION—PROFITABLE EMPLOYMENT FOR THE PEOPLE THE OBJECT OF BOTH PARTIES—MOVEMENTS IN FOREIGN EXCHANGE—SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES—IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR MAY, AND COMPARATIVE TOTAL FROM JANUARY 1ST FOR THREE YEARS—STOCK IN WAREHOUSE—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR SAME PERIODS—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR MAY AND FROM JAN. 1ST—EXPORTS OF PRODUCE—CAUSES OF FLUCTUATIONS IN SHIPMENTS—DISBURSEMENT OF JULY DIVIDENDS AND INTEREST.

THE past month has been characterized by unusual commercial activity, considering the lateness of the season, and by a general buoyancy in monetary affairs. Capital continues abundant, and even under the increased demand from parties wishing to arrange their liabilities previous to their summer recreation, there has been no advance in rates of interest. This ease in the money-market has led to less recklessness in business than was generally expected. Real estate has advanced in price, not only near all the great centers of business, but generally throughout the country. This advance, however, has been very different from that usually seen during the fever of speculation, when all sections have improved indiscriminately, or the highest price has been paid for fictitious investments. The sales of late, particularly near the large cities, have been to more discriminating purchasers, and few large prices have been paid except for a corresponding value. It is true that some property has improved more than others equally eligible, but there have been no active movements in "water lots" or fancy building sites in "cities" not yet incorporated. If any investments have gone beyond the bounds of prudence, the most noticeable are the purchases of railroad bonds, large amounts of which have been placed either by public auction, or by receiving proposals from competing bidders. Where a road has become established, and the money borrowed forms but a part of the saleable value of the property mortgaged for its security, the investment would seem to be a safe one, even if the net income were not immediately sufficient to pay the interest upon the bonds. But where the original subscription has all been sunk in unproductive labor, and the bonds issued represent nearly the whole saleable value of the road, then the prospect of an immediate permanent income becomes important, and a careful examination of the claims of the borrower would seem a matter of common prudence.

The problem of the effect the increased production of gold is likely to have upon the value of property has become still more interesting since the contribution of Australia has been added to the golden tide. We have never felt the same anxiety which has prevailed in other quarters, because we have believed that the increase of capital, under present circumstances, would so far augment the facilities of trade, and stimulate production, that the present balance between supply and consumption would not be greatly disturbed. Were gold so readily supplied without effort, that the mass of the people could secure a fortune in

idleness, then the increased consumption would tend to enhance prices. This result, however, is not at all likely to follow recent discoveries, and there is little reason to fear for any undue advance in prices of productive property. Even in the past, the highest prices of breadstuffs or of real estate, either here or abroad, have not been realized at the period of the greatest stock of the precious metals on deposit or in circulation. A single stormy day in harvest time has more effect on the price of flour than the arrival of millions of gold dust; at this very moment, with a production of gold from California up to this time of over $200,000,000, good flour is selling in New York at about $4 00 per barrel. The same absence of any general connection between the values of the necessaries of life and the supply of the precious metals, will be found on reference to statistics in Europe. The following will show the comparative population of Great Britain, the stock of gold and silver coin, and the price of wheat per quarter:—

Year.	Population.	Gold & silver coin.	Price of wheat.
1500....	3,000,000	£34,000,000	8 shillings.
1600.....	3,600,000	180,000,000	27 "
1700.....	5,500,000	226,000,000	36 "
1809.....	10,000,000	380,000,000	115 "
1829.....	12,800,000	313,000,000	52 "
1849.....	18,000,000	315,000,000	44 "
1852.....	18,500,000	405,000,000	42 "

The high price in 1809 was owing to the combined influence of political troubles and unfruitful seasons, and in 1829 the latter cause, together with the sliding scale, produced a similar result, although not to the same extent.

There appears to be but little doubt, whatever the popular opinion may be upon this subject, that other causes have done far more to depress or inflate prices, since the year 1700, than the relative supply of the precious metals. The real source of a nation's prosperity is found in the blessing which attends upon national industry. A working people, where each is left free to enjoy the product of his own toil, need no "fostering" to become wealthy. In this, the friends of a high tariff and the advocates of free trade both agree, and from this point their views diverge. The latter believe that the people should be left free to choose their own pursuits and objects of toil; the former would compel them, as far as possible, to produce all they consume. If a man can earn two dollars in the business of his choice, during the time he can make a hat, which would cost him one dollar if made abroad, free trade would give him the privilege. Tariff objects to this, because while the man is making the hat he can consume his neighbor's butter and beans, and pay the latter a good price for it. In all this, Tariff loses sight of the fact that while the man is earning his two dollars at some other employment, he still consumes the produce and is in a better condition to pay for it. The only force in the high tariff argument would be found in the fact, if it existed, that the business of producing butter and beans was overdone, and that some must be driven out of it, and compelled to make hats. This is not true either in hypothesis or fact, for no business is overcrowded for want of protection, and if it were, partial legislation would not afford the remedy.

There has been little fluctuation in foreign exchange during the month, and the demand in all sections of the Union has been less than anticipated. The fact that the portion of the cotton crop to be shipped has about all gone forward, and that but a limited quantity of new exchange could be made before next

autumn, has kept up prices to about the specie point, but has not led, as hereinafter noticed, to any very large shipments of coin. Some farther exports will doubtless follow weekly, but the supply is fully equal to the demand.

The following will show the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for the month of May:—

DEPOSITS FOR MAY.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$374,260	$384,167	$4,151,000	$4,236,000
Silver	2,340	11,081	20,000	20,000
Total deposits	$376,600	$395,148	$4,171,000	$4,256,000

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	23,000	$460,000	167,382	$3,346,640
Eagles	.....	.....	13,505	135,050
Half eagles	.....	.....	32,445	162,225
Quarter eagles	.....	.....	108,120	270,300
Gold dollars	.....	.....	218,140	218,140
Total gold coinage	23,000	$460,000	539,542	$4,132,355

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars	60,000	$30,000	21,500	$10,750
Dimes	.....	.....	100,000	10,000
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	1,820,600	54,618
Total silver coinage	60,000	$30,000	1,942,100	$75,368

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	.....	.....	263,280	$2,632
Total coinage	83,000	$490,000	2,744,922	$4,210,355

We predicted that the deposits of gold up to the first of June would reach $20,000,000; the above, added to our previous report, shows an aggregate of $20,500,000. Since the first of June, about $4,000,000 have been received in addition to the above, so that the total coinage of California gold for the year will probably exceed $50,000,000.

The imports into this country from foreign ports for the month of May show a large decline from the corresponding month of last year, and a still greater decline from the same period of the preceding year. This falling off is seen more or less at all of the ports, but is most noticeable at the port of New York, where the difference will be seen in the following comparison:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MAY.

	Entered direct.	Ent'd warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852	$6,096,996	$453,109	$789,046	$380,584	$7,719,735
1851	8,942,711	1,148,428	788,326	111,443	10,987,908
1850	7,492,958	2,844,780	808,216	2,883,623	13,529,577

In the item of specie for May, 1850, a portion of the aggregate is made up of California gold received from Chagres, as from a foreign port. Exclusive of specie, the above table shows a decline in the imports from last year of $3,537,314. The withdrawals from warehouse continue in excess of the amount stored, so that the stock of goods in bond is now much reduced. The following will show the fluctuations at New York in this particular:—

	1852.		1851.		1850.	
	Entered warehouse.	Withd'wn from warehouse.	Entered warehouse.	Withd'wn from warehouse.	Entered warehouse.	Withd'n from warehouse.
January.....	$1,281,594	$1,584,552	$1,611,847	$1,024,246	$950,758	$902,965
February.....	1,008,383	1,788,997	1,240,329	899,438	717,662	856,157
March	916,519	1,605,849	1,181,925	1,068,437	1,013,485	561,653
April.....	732,422	1,255,429	1,238,313	1,144,068	1,498,293	586,260
May	453,109	1,380,371	2,148,428	858,519	2,344,780	742,914
Total.....	4,387,027	7,615,298	6,420,842	4,994,708	6,524,978	3,649,949

This shows the withdrawals for the first five months of the current year to be $3,500,000 in excess of the entries, which would leave the stock very small, as will be seen by the following calculation of the business since the 1st of January, 1850:—

WAREHOUSE AT NEW YORK.

	Entered warehouse.	Withdrawn.
For the year 1850	$15,099,750	$10,922,946
For the year 1851.....	13,903,152	13,898,526
Five months of 1852.....	4,387,027	7,615,298
Total.....	$33,389,929	$32,436,770

The stock in warehouse on the 1st of April, which commenced the current quarter, amounted to only $6,199,630, including breadstuffs in bond.

The falling off in the imports for May, as noticed above, added to the deficit for the four months previously given, leaves the total imports at New York since January 1st, nearly $11,000,000 behind the amount for the same period of the previous year, and about $7,000,000 less than the corresponding amount for 1850, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

TOTAL IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 31ST.

	Entered direct.	Ent'd wareh'se.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852	$39,418,731	$4,387,027	$6,281,838	$1,448,434	$51,536,030
1851	50,290,562	6,420,842	4,468,928	1,278,099	62,458,431
1850	41,217,862	6,524,978	4,946,991	5,902,099	58,591,925

Of this decline from last year, $4,353,368 consists of dry goods, of which $504,349 has been realized since the first of May, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE MONTH OF MAY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	$768,810	$536,350	$397,305
Manufactures of cotton	556,829	237,349	277,351
Manufactures of silk	1,030,895	918,399	518,368
Manufactures of flax	367,677	268,986	263,607
Miscellaneous dry goods	52,528	124,013	246,796
Total	$2,776,739	$2,135,097	$1,703,427

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	$28,095	$76,800	$70,584
Manufactures of cotton.....	40,507	52,646	37,902
Manufactures of silk.....	46,720	49,343	138,717
Manufactures of flax	37,506	28,980	40,355
Miscellaneous dry goods	6,083	28,615	26,705
Total	$158,911	$236,384	$314,263
Add entered for consumption...	2,776,739	2,135,097	1,703,427
Total thrown upon market..	$2,935,650	$2,371,481	$2,017,690

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$243,543	$107,244	$109,786
Manufactures of cotton	199,548	92,118	89,510
Manufactures of silk	49,368	111,418	111,309
Manufactures of flax	56,004	59,082	26,580
Miscellaneous dry goods	4,926	9,777	19,817
Total	$553,389	$379,639	$306,961
Add entered for consumption	2,776,739	2,135,097	1,703,427
Total entered at the port	$3,330,128	$2,514,736	$2,010,387

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 28.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$5,744,476	$5,513,126	$4,588,569
Manufactures of cotton	5,532,648	5,355,438	4,295,267
Manufactures of silk	7,025,638	10,296,506	8,156,557
Manufactures of flax	4,211,341	3,291,168	2,643,389
Miscellaneous dry goods	933,610	1,742,901	1,858,522
Total	$23,447,713	$26,199,139	$21,542,604

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$346,837	$474,386	$779,610
Manufactures of cotton	608,095	822,057	1,004,230
Manufactures of silk	514,153	520,655	1,163,650
Manufactures of flax	202,623	332,822	566,149
Miscellaneous dry goods	75,215	220,667	219,324
Total	$1,746,823	$2,370,087	$3,732,963
Add entered for consumption	23,447,713	26,199,139	21,542,604
Total thrown upon the market.	$25,194,036	$28,569,226	$25,275,567

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$587,385	$589,058	$683,435
Manufactures of cotton	825,023	763,854	536,078
Manufactures of silk	496,309	861,037	1,434,510
Manufactures of flax	321,539	322,561	187,772
Miscellaneous dry goods	50,529	190,080	187,967
Total	$2,280,785	$2,726,590	$3,029,757
Add entered for consumption	23,447,713	26,199,139	21,542,604
Total entered at the port	$25,728,498	$28,925,729	$24,572,361

The receipts for duties also exhibit a decline from last year:—

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1851.	1850.
For the month of May	$1,952,110 86	$2,504,640 16	2,311,900 68
Previously reported	10,065,521 79	11,842,839 82	9,213,325 61
Total since January 1	$12,017,632 65	$14,347,479 98	$11,525,226 29

Notwithstanding the decrease in the imports, the exports from this country to foreign ports, will compare favorably with the shipments for the corresponding period of any former year. The following will show the clearances from the port of New York:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR MAY.

	Domestic produce.	For'n dutiable.	For'n free.	Specie.	Total.
1852	$4,349,924	$545,973	$106,818	$1,824,893	$6,727,608
1851	4,402,052	361,015	113,371	4,506,135	9,382,573
1850	3,610,977	310,231	36,401	741,735	4,699,344

In the above it will be seen that the shipments of specie show a large decrease, while the amount of merchandise is about the same. The following is a comparison for five months:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR FIVE MONTHS, ENDING MAY 31ST.

	Domestic produce.	For'n dutiable.	For'n free.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	$18,579,452	$1,936,981	$395,719	$9,067,654	$29,979,806
1851.....	18,678,550	1,716,452	814,910	12,631,148	33,841,060
1850.....	14,945,666	1,555,414	375,082	1,572,290	18,449,461

We continue our monthly statement of the comparative exports of some of the leading articles of produce from New York to foreign ports, from January 1st to June 21st.

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots ....bbls.	10,415	6,794	Naval stores....bbls.	167,990	199,590
Pearls.....	1,007	315	*Oils*—		
Beeswax.....lbs.	159,740	123,596	Whale .....galls.	704,538	26,722
Breadstuffs—			Sperm.....	236,577	243,541
Wheat flour ..bbls.	324,418	525,527	Lard..... ...	178,218	18,075
Rye flour	4,385	6,683	Linseed.....	3,137	7,064
Corn meal.....	20,276	23,731	*Provisions*—		
Wheat .....bush.	215,788	656,873	Pork.....bbls.	24,698	18,307
Rye.....	.....	234,996	Beef.....	15,183	24,314
Oats.....	2,001	3,630	Cut meats.....lbs.	2,602,344	1,056,498
Barley.....	.....	347	Butter.....	1,450,945	295,366
Corn	943,370	521,160	Cheese.....	2,537,163	395,288
Candles—Mould. bxs.	22,035	30,382	Lard.....	2,739,601	1,140,954
Sperm....	1,285	1,604	Rice .....tcs.	16,950	20,453
Coal.....tons.	3,043	16,372	Tallow.....lbs.	1,210,560	259,537
Cotton.....bales.	193,848	247,434	Tobacco—crude pkgs.	9,989	11,725
Hay.....	2,541	5,691	manu'd. lbs.	1,843,925	1,754,496
Hops.....	113	452	Whalebone.....	728,727	204,598

This table exhibits many items of much interest. It will be seen that the exports of wheat, rye, flour, cotton, naval stores, and beef have largely increased, while our shipments of Indian corn, oils, cut meats, butter, cheese, lard, tallow and whalebone have largely declined. The increase in rye is owing to the demand for the continent, whither over 200,000 bushels have been sent within the last three months. Cotton has of course gone forward more freely owing to a larger crop here, and increased production abroad. The shipments of corn have declined, this article not suiting the foreign taste as well as wheat. Oils have been high and scarce, but are now going forward more freely under recent orders. Beef is more in demand, and if our countrymen could be persuaded to take the proper pains to prepare it for a foreign market, would soon become one of our most profitable articles of export.

There will be a large amount of money disbursed for dividends and interest on the 1st of July, which will tend to keep down the rates of interest in our larger Eastern cities to 4 a 5½ per cent; while the large amount of railroad bonds and the like securities sold, and the money received for cereals and cotton, will make capital more abundant throughout the interior.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

FLUCTUATIONS OF STOCKS IN THE BOSTON MARKET.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for June, 1852, (vol. xxvi., page 727,) we gave a table of the fluctuations of forty different stocks in the Boston market, showing their highest and lowest points, and the date, with the market value, gain or loss for the month of April, 1852, &c., derived from the carefully prepared "money article" of the Boston *Commonwealth*. We now subjoin, from the same reliable source, a similar table for the month of May, 1852. This table shows the unusual feature of every stock having advanced or held its own, with the exception of the Vermont Central. The advance in dividend securities has been very large.

FLUCTUATIONS FOR MAY IN FORTY DIFFERENT STOCKS, SHOWING THEIR HIGHEST AND LOWEST POINTS, AND THE DATE, WITH THE PRESENT MARKET VALUE, GAIN OR LOSS FOR THE MONTH, AND NUMBER OF SHARES SOLD IN EACH.

Stocks.	Highest sales.	Day mo.	Lowest sales.	Day mo.	Value May 31.	From April 30. Gain.	Loss.	Shares sold.
Boston and Lowell	109½	24	107½	1	110	2½	..	22
Boston and Providence	94½	22	90	1	93½	3½	..	558
Boston and Worcester	106½	18	102½	1	106½	4½	..	476
Boston and Maine	110	28	105½	1	110	4½	..	202
Michigan Central	101	13	99½	1	100½	¼	..	666
Manchester and Lawrence	100¾	25	94½	1	100	6	..	209
Vermont and Canada	104	27	100	10	104	4	..	208
Fitchburg	107½	27	103¾	1	107	3½	..	433
Eastern	103½	24	96½	3	103½	6½	..	187
Western	108	18	105	5	107¾	3¾	..	500
Northern	68½	6	68½	31	68¾	2	..	1,044
Concord	54½	28	52	5	54½	2½	..	121
Concord and Montgomery	47½	24	42½	17	45¾	3¾	..	401
Cheshire, (old stock)	45	3	45	3	45	0	..	1
Cheshire, (preferred)	65	27	60	7	65	6	..	143
Old Colony	66	22	63½	3	65½	3½	..	75
Rutland	38	25	34½	5	38½	5	..	137
South Shore	9¾	13	9½	15	9¾	..	..	259
Sullivan	20¼	1	20¼	20	20½	..	..	396
Reading, (par 50)	39½	4	38½	11	39½	½	..	811
Wilmington, (par 50)	33½	18	31½	3	32¾	1¾	..	1,472
Norfolk County	30½	5	28¾	1	30	1½	..	704
Ogdensburg	29½	19	26	1	29	3	..	4,703
Vermont Central	19¾	3	15½	8	17½	..	1½	39,068
Vermont and Massachusetts	24	6	20½	1	22	1½	..	2,432
Pittsburg Copper Co.	107	17	107	17	108	5	..	7
Edgeworth Co	8½	6	8	4	8	0	..	2,668
East Boston Co.	25½	19	22½	1	24¾	1¾	..	10,859
Canton Co	84	18	80½	26	81	¾	..	1,102
Essex Co	118½	26	105	1	115½	10½	..	1,260
Bank of Commerce	104½	26	103¾	1	104¾	1	..	241
Bank of North America	105	21	103½	3	104¾	1¾	..	32
Faneuil Hall Bank	104	27	103½	10	104	1½	..	89
Exchange Bank	108½	24	106¾	8	108	1	..	82
Traders' Bank	..	..	..	..	105½	2½	..	none
Ogdensburg 7's	100	11	98	4	100	4½	..	$39,800
Vermont Central 7's	91	2	87¾	8	90½	..	..	$254,800
Do. 6's, 1856	76½	4	73	15	76	..	..	$11,500
Rutland 7's	99½	26	95	3	99½	6	..	$51,800
Norfolk County Bonds	77	12	71½	5	75½	4¾	..	$17,100

It will be seen, by referring to the table in the June number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, that the amount of business in the fancies has not been so large as in the month of April, transactions being more confined to dividend-paying securities, which have been in active request, more particularly about the middle of the month. Northern now (June 1) sells, dividend off, at half a dollar per share less than on the 30th of April, but including the dividend, the actual gain for the month has been $2 per share. Essex Company has been very active throughout the month; May 1st it sold for 105, but reached 117 on the 7th, and then fell off to 108 May 13th. Again it started up, and touched 118 on the 19th, since which time it has been moving about between 115 and 118, sometimes varying $2 to $3 in one day.

OF THE INCREASED AND INCREASING SUPPLIES OF GOLD.

The following article on the increased supplies of gold from California and Australia, is condensed from a late number of the London *Athenæum*. Although many of the "facts and figures" it contains have already appeared in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, their repetition in this place is necessary for the purpose of elucidating the conclusions of the writer of the article in the *Athenæum*.

"The estimates of the values of the quantity of gold and silver existing in Europe and America, at the commencement of the year 1848, are taken from the work of M. Chevalier, on money, published in 1850.

"No supplies had been received from California till late in 1848. The total stock of gold and silver in the year 1500, when America was discovered, is computed at £40,000,000 sterling, of which the amount of gold was only £12,000,000. This sum, compared with the large amount received from the mines of America, subsequent to 1500, accounts for the great revolution in the value of gold, which took place soon after the voyage of Columbus.

"In 1848, however, there was a large accumulation of gold and silver in the world, on which the new and large supplies could operate but slowly in any alteration of value, compared with the immediate effect produced in the value of money at the time of the discovery and first working of the South American mines.

"In 1848, there was a mass of £1,727,000,000 sterling of both metals.

ESTIMATE OF THE VALUE OF THE TOTAL QUANTITY OF GOLD AND SILVER EXISTING IN VARIOUS FORMS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE YEAR 1848.

	Silver.	Gold.
America	£1,087,000,000	£401,000,000
Europe	90,000,000	25,000,000
Russia	13,000,000	44,000,000
Africa and other places	.....	100,000,000
Total	£1,180,000,000	£570,000,000
As existing A. D. 1500	28,000,000	12,000,000
Total	£1,208,000,000	£582,000,000
Add silver		1,208,000,000
Total pounds sterling		£1,790,000,000
Deduct for exportation, wear and tear, and losses by casualties		64,000,000
Leaving		£1,726,000,000

"A third part of this was gold. And if we suppose, as we have reason to believe, that the new produce yielded by the sources of supply in California and Australia will amount annually to £20,000,000 sterling, or $100,000,000, a few years will lead to an important alteration in the present exchangeable value of gold. The new supply would then be at the annual increase of 3½ per cent on the stock existing in 1848. In 1850 and in 1851 the increase was actually at the rate of 2 to 2½ per cent on the stock of gold in 1848.

"The annual supply of the precious metals in 1800 and 1848 is stated as follows:

ESTIMATED VALUE OF THE ANNUAL QUANTITIES OF GOLD AND SILVER PLACED IN THE MARKETS OF THE WORLD AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY—SAY IN THE YEAR 1800:—

	Silver.	Gold.
America	£7,000,000	£1,920,000
Europe, excluding Russia, but including Turkey	560,000	140,000
Russia	200,000	88,000
Africa	.....	280,000
Archipelago of Asia	.....	650,000
Divers other sources	80,000	180,000
Total	£7,840,000	£3,258,000
Silver		7,840,000
Total gold and silver		£11,098,000

ESTIMATED VALUE OF THE ANNUAL QUANTITIES OF GOLD AND SILVER PLACED IN THE MARKETS OF THE WORLD IMMEDIATELY BEFORE THE DISCOVERY OF THE CALIFORNIAN MINES, OR SAY IN THE EARLY PART OF 1848.

	Silver.	Gold.
America	£6,200,000	£2,100,000
Europe, excluding Russia, but including Turkey	1,320,000	360,000
Russia	210,000	4,100,000
Africa	.....	550,000
Asia, excluding Russia and Turkey	900,000	2,800,000
Total	£8,630,000	£9,910,000
Silver		8,630,000
Total gold and silver		£18,540,000

"Comparing these two statements, the results are as follows:—

YEAR 1848 COMPARED WITH 1800.

	Silver.		Gold.	
	Less.	More.	Less.	More.
America	£800,000	.....	.....	£180,000
Europe	.....	£760,000	.....	240,000
Russia	.....	10,000	.....	4,012,000
Africa	.....	.....	.....	270,000
Asia, &c	.....	820,000	.....	1,970,000
Total	£800,000	£1,590,000	.....	£6,672,000
Less		800,000		.....
More		£790,000		£6,672,000

"Comparing the two periods in the most general manner, we find that the annual supply had increased in forty-eight years thus:—

Gold in 1800	£3,260,000	
Gold in 1848	9,910,000	
Increase		£6,650,000
Silver in 1800	£7,840,000	
Silver in 1848	8,630,000	
Increase		£790,000

"The greater increase in the annual supply of gold than in that of silver before 1848, arose almost wholly from the Russian supplies. These supplies had proceeded at the rate of about £4,000,000 a year for about ten years prior to 1848; so that, generally, for nearly ten years prior to the discovery of California, the annual supplies of gold had been far greater in proportion than the annual supplies of silver.

"The produce of California, up to the end of 1851, has been fully £30,000,000 sterling, or $150,000,000; of which £14,000,000 sterling was obtained in 1851.

"The produce of Australia, to the end of 1851, during six months only, was not less than £500,000 sterling, and most likely £1,000,000 sterling.

"The disposal of all this produce becomes the important and interesting question.

STATEMENT FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES OF THE VALUE OF THE COINAGE OF GOLD, THE PRODUCE OF THE UNITED STATES TERRITORY, AT THE FOUR MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES, (PHILADELPHIA, NEW ORLEANS, CHARLOTTE, AND DAHLONEGA,) DURING THE YEARS AS UNDER.

	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
1848	£9,000	£170,000	£179,000
1849	1,230,000	185,000	1,415,000
1850	7,255,000	133,000	7,388,000
1851	10,540,000	86,000	10,626,000
	£19,034,000	£574,000	£19,608,000
From the establishment of the oldest of the mints in 1792 to the end of 1847, 55 years		2,561,000	2,561,000
Total		£3,135,000	£22,169,000

STATEMENT FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES OF THE VALUE OF THE COINAGE OF GOLD AND SILVER AT PARIS DURING THE YEARS AS UNDER.

	Silver.	Gold.	Total.
1849	£7,860,000	£1,090,000	£8,450,000
1850	3,000,000	4,600,000	7,600,000
1851	2,270,000	9,640,000	11,910,000
Total	£12,630,000	£15,330,000	£27,960,000

NOTE. It is important to bear in mind that the £15,330,000 of gold coinage shown above was not derived wholly from new supplies of gold, but was obtained to a considerable extent by the conversion into coin of a part of the gold bullion previously existing in the markets of Europe, and especially in France. The published accounts do not enable us to state precisely what portion of the £15,330,000 was old and what new gold bullion; but perhaps more than half or even three-fourths was old.

The general effect of the evidence furnished by these two tables is as follows :—

In the United States there has been actually coined and added to the circulation of that country since 1848.....gold	£19,000,000
In France there has been a similar coinage of	15,000,000
Making together	34,000,000
Deduct for French gold coin obtained from old stock of bullion already in Europe prior to 1848, say	10,000,000
	24,000,000
California supply	39,000,000
Surplus added to floating stock in market	6,000,000

"Judging from the present amount (£20,000,000) of bullion in the Bank of England it is probable that these figures are not very far from the truth.

"The amount of metallic money in France has, for the last two hundred years, been enormous. Paper money never took root there. In 1843, the amount, as estimated by M. Leon Faucher, was thus :—

Gold coin	£14,000,000 stg.
Silver coin	120,000,000
Total	£134,000,000

"Both metals are legal tender in France, as in the United States. Until 1850, silver was the cheaper metal, and therefore silver was mostly sent to the French mint to be coined, and gold coin was withdrawn from circulation as soon as issued. Since 1850, this state of things disappeared. The agio on gold ceased; and in and from 1851, gold has been at a discount in Paris, compared with silver. This gave rise to the enormous increase in the gold coinage of France, or, in other words, gold became the cheaper metal. Gold will take the place of silver, independently of any aid from government, while the existing mint regulations are continued. It is so in the United States, where, since the act of Congress in 1834, gold has been overvalued as compared with silver, and hence the strong tendency to introduce gold into the currency, in place of silver. The conclusion drawn from these facts is this :—

"'That so long as the process, which has been going on so extensively since 1849, in the United States and France, of introducing a gold coinage in replacement of silver continues, the effect will be to lessen very much the effect of the new supplies, both (1) upon the relative values of gold and silver, and (2) upon the general state of trade and prices.

"'And this position is readily illustrated. For, if instead of £24,000,000 stg. of gold having been absorbed for coin (out of £30,000,000 produced) since 1848, leaving only £6,000,000 of gold to operate by way of positive addition to the previous stock of that metal, the whole £30,000,000 had been left so to operate, it is tolerably plain that the effects would have been much more serious and startling than any which have hitherto been observed.

"'We may, perhaps, reckon with certainty on the continuance of the present absorption of gold as coin, at the rate of £20,000,000 a year, for some time to come; but then no change must take place in the mint legislation of the countries at present having a double standard.'

"It is stated, on good authority, that Australia will supply this year £10,000,000 stg; and California £15,000,000 stg.

"The immediate effect of this supply, caused by its accumulation at the fountain-head of circulation, the commercial capitals of the world, is to lower the rate of interest until the bulk of it be taken thoroughly into the circulation of the world, displacing other currency—silver and paper.

"The increased amount of gold will greatly stimulate production, which, in the opinion of practical men of eminence and ability, will at first lower the prices of commodities, notwithstanding the large supplies of gold, before they can be rendered higher, which can only be the result of a very large demand and consumption, which will, however, ensue. Where there is a large and excessive amount of floating capital, the tendency is always towards its conversion, more or less gradual, into fixed capital. Any sudden conversion of this kind would change an easy money market into a comparatively tight one."

PRODUCTION OF THE PRECIOUS METALS FROM 1492 TO 1852.

An officer of the United States Treasury Department at Washington, in answer to a semi-official inquiry made at the Department, has presented an elaborate report, estimating the production of the precious metals from 1492 to 1852. The writer, after an examination of the standard authors upon the subject, Humboldt, McCulloch, and Jacobs, estimates the total product of the world, exclusive of Australia, as follows:—

America, exclusive of the United States		$6,877,833,800
California, received at Mint	$98,408,000	
California, foreign exports, manufactured, etc.	51,592,000	
Other United States gold at Mint	15,855,000	
Ditto not brought to Mint	1,145,000	
Total United States		167,000,000
Total America		$7,044,833,800
Europe and Asia, exclusive of Russia		1,755,000,000
Russia		213,581,000
Total production, 1492 to 1852		$9,013,414,800

The present annual product of the precious metals, the writer estimates as follows:

All South America	$30,710,000
Add for any probable increase, according to the best authorities	3,290,000
Hungary, Saxony, and Northern Asia	4,000,000
Russia, at the highest estimate of late years	20,000,000
Africa and South Asia (a rough estimate)	1,000,000
Carolina, Georgia, etc	500,000
California	64,500,000
Total	$124,000,000

The compiler of the estimate remarks:—"It is not clearly expressed by any of the authorities quoted, whether the amounts of the precious metals stated to have been produced at different periods, applies to the amount coined or to the entire production, but the inference is strongly in favor of the latter.

"The limited production of gold and silver in the last years of the fifteenth century, may be very naturally accounted for in the limited number of people who at first ventured to explore the New World, and in the scarcity of those metals in the lands first occupied by Columbus; but it will, perhaps, excite surprise to find that the first deposits of California gold in the mints of the United States, in the year 1851, exceed the highest annual production of gold and silver in Mexico and South America by nearly 40 per cent."

CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN NEW YORK.

We give below a statement of the capital and dividends of the several banks in the city of New York for the first half of the year 1852, as compared with the same time in 1851. The capital which paid dividends last year averaged 4½ per cent for the preceding six months. This year $4,592,500 of new capital pays dividends, and the average is slightly less.

		1851.		1852.	
Banks.	Capital.	1st div.	Amount.	1st div.	Amount.
American Exchange	$1,500,000	5	$75,000	5	$75,000
Bank of America	2,001,200	4	80,048	4	80,048
Bank of Commerce	5,000,000	4	188,956	4	188,956
Bank of New York	1,000,000	4	40,000	5	50,000
Bank of North America	1,000,000	new.		3½	35,000
Bank of the Republic	1,000,000	new.		3½	35,000
Bank of the State of N. York	2,000,000	4	80,000	4	80,000
Bowery	365,650	4	17,266	4	17,266
Broadway	500,000	4	20,000	4	20,000
Butchers' and Drovers'	500,000	5	25,000	10	50,000
Chatham	300,000	new.		4	12,000
Chemical	300,000	6	18,000	6	18,000
Citizens'	350,000	new.		4	15,000
City	720,000	5	36,000	5	36,000
Fulton	600,000	5	30,000	5	30,000
Greenwich	200,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
Hanover	500,000	new.		3½	17,500
Irving	300,000	new.		3½	10,500
Leather Manufacturers'	600,000	4	24,000	4	24,000
Manhattan	2,050,000	4	82,000	4	82,000
Mechanics'	1,440,000	5	72,000	5	72,000
Mechanics' Banking Associat'n	632,000	4	25,280	4	25,000
Mechanics' and Tradesmen's	200,000	5	12,000	6	12,280
Mercantile	600,000	new.		5	30,000
Merchants'	1,490,000	5	74,500	.	.....
Merchants' Exchange	1,235,000	5	61,750	4	49,400
Metropolitan	2,000,000	.	.....	.	.....
National	750,000	5	37,500	5	37,500
New York Dry Dock	240,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
New York Exchange	130,000	new.		4	5,200
North River	655,000	5	32,250	5	32,250
Ocean	1,000,000	5	50,000	4	40,000
Pacific	422,000	4	16,908	.	.....
People's	412,500	new.		3½	14,406
Phœnix	1,200,000	4	48,000	4	48,000
Seventh Ward	500,000	6½	50,000	6½	50,000
Tradesmen's	400,000	5	20,000	5	20,000
Union	1,000,000	5	50,000	5	50,000
Total	$35,044,850	4½	1,281,458	4.15	1,378,206

For the sake of comparison, we give the aggregate capital and dividends of the banks in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, as follows:—

	1851.			1852.		
	Capital.	Dividend.	Rate.	Capital.	Dividend.	Rate.
Boston	$21,760,000	$884,298	4.06	$24,410,000	$1,021,250	4.11
New York	30,451,850	1,281,458	4.28	35,044,350	1,378,206	4.15
Philadelphia	7,725,000	314,750	4.07	7,755,000	378,250	5.00

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for September 1851, (vol. xxv., page 353,) we published under our "JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE" a detailed statement of the condition of each bank in South Carolina, from the official copy of their returns, made to the Controller-General, for June 30th, 1851; and in the number for November, 1851, (same volume, page 615,) and also in the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1852, (vol. xxvi., p. 475,) we gave the aggregate condition of all the banks in the State, the former for the 31st of August, 1851, and the latter for the 31st of December, 1851. We now subjoin a similar aggregate statement of their Auditor for the 31st of March, 1852:—*

DEBTS DUE BY THE SEVERAL BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA ON THE 31ST OF MARCH, 1852.

Capital stock	$5,991,885 73
Bills in circulation	3,933,779 12
Net profits on hand	647,948 25
Balances due to banks in this State	1,253,914 69
Balances due to banks in other States	328,894 87
All other moneys due which bear interest	13,675 00
State Treasury, for balance, Current Fund	29,543 39
State Treasury for balance, Sinking Fund	522,909 30
State Treasury, for loan for rebuilding the city	1,769,160 11
Cash deposited†	2,548,449 41
Total liabilities	$17,025,159 87

RESOURCES OF THE SEVERAL BANKS ON THE 31ST OF MARCH, 1852.

Specie on hand	$682,912 62
Real estate	224,765 77
Bills of other banks in this State	416,111 47
Bills of banks in other States	20,765 00
Balances due from banks in this State	106,981 94
Balances due from banks in other States	165,737 51
Notes discounted on personal security	7,024,718 90
Loans secured by pledge of its own stock	221,660 77
Loans secured by pledge of other stock	486,849 81
Domestic exchange	2,452,896 86
Foreign Exchange	568,828 45
Bonds	906,705 61
Money invested in stock	837,938 67
Suspended debt and debt in suit	491,385 66
State Treasury	87,087 50
Branches and agencies	1,519,121 92
Bonds under law for rebuilding Charleston	320,833 79
Interest and expenses of State loan	50,793 10
Money invested in every other way	439,064 53
Total resources of the banks	$17,025,159 87

* This statement embraces the Bank of the State of South of Carolina, and the Branch of the same at Columbia; the South-Western Railroad Bank; the Planters' and Mechanics' Bank; Union Bank of Charleston; State Bank of South Carolina; and the Bank of South Carolina.

† And all other moneys due, exclusive of bills in circulation, profits on hand, balances due other banks, and money bearing interest.

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES POST OFFICE.

The United States Senate passed, on the 25th of March, 1852, a resolution requesting the Postmaster-General "to report to the Senate the whole number of letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1851; distinguishing the paid from the unpaid, those paid by stamps from those paid in cash," together with certain other matters.

From the communications of the Postmaster-General and the Auditor of the Department, we condense the subjoined statistics:—

POSTAGE COLLECTED IN THE LEADING CITIES.

The postages collected during the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1851, were as follows:—

New York.	Philadelphia.	Boston.	New Orleans.	Baltimore.	Cincinnati.	St. Louis.
$531,830	$197,019	$176,756	$117,886	$99,670	$82,833	$53,062

DEAD LETTERS CONTAINING MONEY, ETC.

The number of dead letters received during the fiscal year is estimated by the officer in charge of that department at 2,750,000. During the same period the number of dead letters containing money, opened, registered, and sent out for delivery, was 645.

The aggregate amount of money found in the same	$40,836 73
The number of such letters delivered	5,347
The amount of money therein	$36,090 61
The number of letters returned unclaimed	1,106
The nominal amount of money in the same	$4,246 12

A few of the unclaimed letters have been restored to their owners since the close of the fiscal year, and the remainder are yet on hand in the dead letter office.

There is also another class of dead letters which contain articles of value other than money, such as bonds, notes of hand, drafts, bills of exchange, checks, certificates of deposit, certificates of stock, and other papers having a value capable of being expressed in dollars and cents. During the same year the number of letters of this class registered and sent out for delivery was 10,088. Their inclosures having a nominal value of $1,292,125.

Of these 6,631 were restored to their owners; 3,263 were returned unclaimed, and 194 remained in the hands of postmasters to whom they had been sent for delivery.

LETTERS PASSED THROUGH THE POST OFFICE IN 1851.

By calculation, the Auditor estimates the whole number of paid and unpaid letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the year aforesaid (exclusive of California, foreign and dead letters) at	71,185,285
Deduct number estimated to have been prepaid by stamps	1,270,088
Leaves paid by cash and unpaid	69,915,197
Then estimating the number paid by cash to have been 3-64th of this amount, we have as paid letters	19,207,471
Leaving as unpaid letters	50,707,726
Paid by stamps	1,270,088
Free	8,646,016
Drop	715,428
Conveyed by European steamers	8,909,186
Conveyed by Havana steamers	56,903
Conveyed by California steamers	1,323,567
Dead letters	2,416,250
Total	83,252,735

Letters which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1851.

The amount of postage due on dead letters for the same year was $165,125, by estimate.

The number of free letters is computed from the returns of postmasters for a single quarter, and may be regarded as rather below the actual amount, as in some cases postmasters fail to enter in their returns the free letters delivered from their office, upon which by law they are allowed a commission of two cents.

PRINTED MATTER PASSED THROUGH THE POST OFFICE IN 1851.

The number of newspapers and pamphlets chargable with postage which passed through the Post Office of the United States during the year ended June 30, 1851, was	82,695,872
According to a calculation made by Mr. Bradley, of the Washington city Post Office, the free printed matter passing through his Office during the same period was	3,460,050
Exchange newspapers and documents franked by Governors of States, &c., estimated	5,000,000
Total printed matter	91,155,922

It is proper to remark that in computing the number of free letters no allowance is made for such free printed matter as is mailed at other offices than Washington city; and as it is never entered on way-bills by postmasters, and no returns are made therefor, this office has no data upon which to base even a calculation.

COST OF TRANSPORTATION AND POSTAGES COLLECTED IN THE SEVERAL STATES, ETC.

The following table shows the amounts actually credited for the transportation of mails, by States, and differs slightly from the amounts actually paid. It also shows the amounts by postage collected in the several States:—

	Transportation.	Postages col'd.		Transportation.	Postages col'd.
Maine	$47,690 25	$161,891 57	Mississippi	$81,189 93	$99,388 23
N. Hampshire	27,662 00	100,784 21	Tennessee	74,142 59	115,441 97
Vermont	48,643 93	103,700 68	Missouri	101,313 28	138,623 31
Massachusetts	132,164 84	540,686 65	Arkansas	61,244 90	32,528 72
Connecticut	62,176 19	177,592 38	Iowa	24,850 05	48,787 90
Rhode Island	12,088 20	59,220 44	Louisiana	66,546 89	165,802 66
New York	321,251 60	1,351,373 63	Texas	107,977 20	50,162 35
New Jersey	56,813 37	106,049 71	Minnesota	1,192 89	3,550 36
Maryland	143,150 97	174,290 72	Kentucky	87,121 70	148,404 67
Delaware	8,717 85	20,503 45	Indiana	76,225 82	154,269 77
Pennsylvania	146,105 64	595,070 86	Illinois	156,685 71	209,063 20
Virginia	169,425 21	244,229 13	Ohio	138,543 88	485,758 78
North Carolina	154,126 10	84,288 34	Michigan	36,720 22	116,799 50
South Carolina	107,281 74	113,918 30	Wisconsin	34,434 77	102,540 74
Georgia	144,262 86	170,054 59	California	111,515 87	302,247 33
Florida	31,701 55	23,831 58	Oregon	9,875 80	6,847 95
Alabama	139,349 30	133,391 63	New Mexico	350 00	441 03
Utah					1,171 48
Nebraska					42 96
District of Columbia					42,039 86
New York to Bremen				166,416 68	
New York to Havre				73,550 00	
Bremen postage					19,308 76
Miscellaneous entries					274 25
Charleston to Havana				50,000 00	19,308 76
Across the Isthmus of Panama, under treaty with New Grenada				45,318 86	6,404,373 65

The above table of transportation embraces (with the exception of what is paid for the sea service) only such items as are classified by States upon the books of this office. A portion of the expenses of the Department charged to transportation, consisting of river mails, route agents, irregular service, and some cases of recognized service, are consequently not included.

The number of letters conveyed by the Cunard, Collins, Bremen, and Havre lines for the same period is as follows, viz:—

By the Cunard line, whole number	2,613,771
By the Collins line	843,144
By the Havre line	139,030
By the Bremen line	313,241
	3,909,186
Unpaid by the Cunard line	1,515,860
Paid by the Cunard line	1,097,911
Unpaid by Collins line	497,165
Paid by Collins line	345,979
Unpaid by Bremen line	206,032
Paid by Bremen line	107,209
Unpaid by Havre line	91,072
Paid by Havre line	47,958
	3,909,186

Number of newspapers conveyed by same lines, respectively, and the amount of postage collected on the same:—By Cunard line, 637,168; By Collins line, 224,278; by Bremen line, 7,180; by Havre line; 3,920; total, 872,546; at two cents each, $17,450 92.

Amount of postage on letters by Cunard and Collins lines, respectively, collected in the United States and Great Britain, and the amount of commissions paid to our postmasters on the balance due and paid to the British Government:—

By Cunard line collected in United States	$309,494 44
By Cunard line collected in Great Britain	226,543 17
Total	$536,037 61
By Collins line collected in United States	131,127 85
By Collins line collected in Great Britain	74,713 86
Total	$205,841 71
The balance due and paid to the British Government was	$59,490 78

It is estimated that three-fourths of the postages by the Cunard and Collins lines collected in the United States have been collected in the large offices, at which the commissions are 12½ per cent, and that the average rate of commissions paid on the remaining one fourth has not exceeded 30 per cent. According to this calculation, the commissions paid to our postmasters on the balance due and paid to Great Britain amounts to $10,039 06; to say, $44,618 09, at 12½ per cent, $5,577 26; $14,872 69, at 30 per cent, $4,461 80; total, $10,039 06.

A portion of this sum is returned to the Department in the shape of surplus commissions at the large offices.

The amount received from the British Government on closed mails was $45,279 41. The amount paid to the British Government on closed mails was $6,306 60.

The number of letters conveyed between New York and California, and New York and Oregon, via Chagres and Panama, and the amount of postages collected thereon, are as follows:—

Number of letters sent and received		1,323,667
Amount of postage thereon		$529,341 04
Unpaid (estimated)	$443,848 57	
Paid "	85,492 47	
Total		$529,341 04

The post bills sent to this office from New York do not distinguish between the California and Oregon letters; nor do they state the number of newspapers sent and received by the same line, nor the number of free letters.

The number of letters and newspapers conveyed by the Charleston and Havana steamers, and the amount of postage collected thereon, are as follows:—Letters, 56,903; newspapers, 24,664; amount of letter postage, $9,156 87; amount of newspaper postage, $739 92; total, $9,896 79.

REVENUES OF THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION IN 1851.

For the following copy of a paper received at the Department of State, from J. G. FLUGEL, Esq., United States Consul at Leipsic, the editor is indebted to the Consular Bureau, at Washington. The information it contains will be interesting to readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

AN ACCOUNT SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE REVENUES OF THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION RAISED IN THE DIFFERENT STATES RESPECTIVELY, IN THE YEAR 1851, AND THE DISTRIBUTION THEREOF ACCORDING TO POPULATION.—COMPILED FROM THE OFFICIAL "CENTRALBLATT DER ABGABEN," ETC., BERLIN, 1852.—TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, BY J. G. FLUGEL, UNITED STATES CONSUL, LEIPSIC.

States.	Population.	Import duties. Amount of common gross receipts.	Import duties. Amount of common net receipts for distribution.	Amount payable to each State, according to its population.	Export and transit duties payable to each State, according to its population.	Import, export, and transit duties payable to each State, according to its population.	Balance due to or from the common fund which each State has had. To pay.	To receive.
Prussia.....thalers *a* with which	16,669,158	15,572,929	14,247,476	11,211,383	244,203	11,455,586	3,111,161	.....
Luxemburg.....	189,783	77,114	*10,445	127,645	2,241	129,886	.....	186,011
Bavaria.....	4,526,650	1,210,539	904,991	3,044,546	53,463	3,098,009	.....	2,166,021
Saxony	1,894,431	2,119,847	1,995,287	1,274,161	29,736	1,303,897	786,761	.....
Wurtemburg.....	1,805,558	348,527	330,237	1,214,387	21,325	1,235,712	.....	899,766
Baaden	1,360,599	652,625	353,482	915,115	16,070	931,185	.....	534,069
Hesse Cassel	731,584	433,046	342,256	492,051	8,641	500,692	.....	157,434
Hesse Darmstadt.....	862,917	412,803	402,501	580,383	10,193	590,575	.....	191,371
Thuringian States	1,014,954	391,793	391,793	682,640	15,931	698,571	.....	306,489
Brunswick.....	247,070	390,143	229,523	166,175	3,534	169,709	68,289	.....
Nassau	425,686	74,829	71,310	286,309	5,028	291,339	.....	219,591
Frankfort *b*.....	.....	861,492	636,384	.....	....	.....	649,541	.....
Total.....	29,728,385	22,545,687	20,005,240	19,994,795	410,364	20,405,159	4,610,752	4,610,762
		* Less	10,445*c*					
			19,994,795					

a The thaler, 69 cents American currency. *b* Frankfort is regulated by a specific arrangement, and not by population. *c* A special payment by Prussia, on account of the Union.

CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN PHILADELPHIA.

The annexed table of capital, par and market value of stock, per cent and amount of dividends of certain banks in Philadelphia is derived from the *Ledger*:—

Banks.	Capital.	Per cent.	Market value.	Per cent.	Amount paid.
Philadelphia	$1,150,000	100.00	$140 00	5	$57,500
Farmers' and Mechanics'	1,250,000	50.00	70 00	7	87,500
Girard	1,250,000	12.50	12 75	3	37,500
Commercial	1,000,000	50.00	59 00	4	40,000
Mechanics'	800,000	20.00	29 00	6	48,000
Western	500,000	50.00	64 00	5	25,000
Northern Liberties	350,000	35.00	55 00	5	17,500
Manufacturers' and Mechanics'	300,000	25.00	27 50	4	12,000
Southwark	250,000	50.00	70 00	5	12,500
Kensington	250,000	50.00	68 00	5	12,500
Bank of Commerce	250,000	50.00	67 00	5	12,500
P. Township	225,000	22.50	52 00	5	11,250
Tradesmen's	150,000	50.00	52 00	3	4,500
Total	$7,775,000				$378,250

The above amount of dividends on the same amount of capital is $13,000 more than was declared by the same banks at the semi-annual period in November, 1851, and $4,000 less than in May, one year ago. It will be seen that the dividends average a trifle less than 5 per cent for the half year.

THE PENNSYLVANIA LOAN BILL.

We publish below, for the benefit of our European as well as American capitalists, who refer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the act of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, passed May 3d, and approved May 4th, 1852, authorizing a loan of five millions of dollars, and the issue of the bonds of the Commonwealth for the same. The acts passed by Pennsylvania are justly denominated "Omnibus Bills," as they frequently embrace a great variety of distinct subjects. The present act, for instance, commences with section 101, all the sections preceding it relating to topics of a totally different nature, and not having the remotest bearing upon the Loan Bill. We do hope that the great State of Pennsylvania, which has redeemed its public credit, will follow the example of New York, and other States in the Union, by devoting one bill to one object, or in other words, by abolishing a disgraceful system of "log rolling:"—

PASSED MAY 3D, AND APPROVED MAY 4TH, 1852.

SECTION 101. That the Governor and State Treasurer be and they are hereby authorized and empowered to borrow, on the faith of the Commonwealth, during the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, at such times and in such amounts as they may deem best for the interest of the State, any sum not exceeding five millions of dollars, and issue bonds of the Commonwealth for the same, bearing a rate of interest not exceeding 5 per cent per annum, payable semi-annually; which bonds shall not be subject to taxation for any purpose whatever, and shall be reimbursable in twenty-five years from their date; and the sum so borrowed shall be applied to the payment of the 6 per cent loans that are payable at the option of the Commonwealth after the years one thousand eight hundred and forty-six and forty-seven, to the cancellation of the certificates issued to domestic creditors and the outstanding and unclaimed interest certificates, in the manner hereinafter provided. And the balance of said five millions shall be applied to the extinguishment of any of the 5 per cent bonds of the State now outstanding and for no other purpose.

SEC. 102. That the bonds for said loan shall be issued in sums of either one thousand, five thousand, or ten thousand dollars each, with coupons or interest certificates attached in sums equal in amount to the semi-annual interest thereon; which certificates shall be redeemable in gold and silver, or an equivalent, on the first days of

February and August in each and every year, at such place as may be designated by the Governor and State Treasurer; and said officers shall procure the engravings for such bonds and certificates, and cause the same to be signed and countersigned as hereinafter directed, and take such other steps as may be necessary to carry out the true intent and meaning of this act. And the Governor is hereby authorized to draw warrants on the State Treasurer for such sums as may be necessary to pay the proper expenses incident to the negotiation of such loan, and said warrants shall be paid out of any moneys in the treasury.

SEC. 103. That the State Treasurer shall advertise for at least two months in one newspaper in Boston, one in New York, and one in Philadelphia, and one paper in London, one in Amsterdam, and one in Paris, in Europe, inviting sealed proposals for loan herein authorized, or any parts thereof; which proposals shall state the price intended to be paid in gold and silver, or its equivalent, by the bidder for each thousands dollars of such loan; and at noon on the day appointed for that purpose the State Treasurer and Auditor General, in the presence of the Governor and Secretary of the Commonwealth, and of such other persons as may attend, shall proceed to open said proposals and allot the loan to the highest and best bidder or bidders, whereupon bonds shall be issued to the person or persons entitled to said loan as hereinbefore provided, which bonds or certificates of loan shall be signed by the Governor and countersigned by the State Treasurer and Auditor General, and the State Treasurer shall sign or authorize said coupons or certificates of interest to be signed; *Provided*, That in making proposals for the loan authorized by this act, the holder or holders of any of the bonds of the Commonwealth of certificates for interest, and the holders of domestic creditor certificates, shall be authorized to bid for any part of said loan to the full amount of such certificate or certificates, together with the unpaid interest thereon; *Provided also*, That at the time of making proposals for the said loan, application may be made for any part thereof, at an interest of 4 per cent, or a less rate, upon condition that the loan shall be for a greater period, and not exceed thirty-five years, exempt from taxation, with the interest thereon payable semi-annually, the Governor is hereby authorized and empowered to entertain and carry into effect such proposition, should he deem it advisable for the best interest of the Commonwealth; *Provided further*, That the notice to be issued in Europe for proposals shall precede the notice in this country at least one month.

SEC. 104. That immediately after the negotiations of the loans herein provided for, the State Treasurer shall give notice in one newspaper in Boston, one in New York, and one in Philadelphia, to the holders of all certificates of loan then due, and to the holders of certificates issued to domestic creditors, to present the same at his office at Harrisburg, or at such place as he may designate in Philadelphia, for final payment; and in case such holders shall refuse or neglect to surrender the certificates aforesaid, the interest thereon shall cease to be paid by the State within sixty days of the time of payment fixed in such notice; *Provided*, That it shall be lawful for the Governor and State Treasurer, in addition to gold and silver, to receive at par, in payment for the loan herein authorized, any of the bonds of the State, domestic creditor certificates, and the certificates issued for unpaid interest; the certificates of loan paid and cancelled under the provisions of this act, after having been copied into a book to be kept in the office of the State Treasurer for that purpose, shall be destroyed by the State Treasurer and Auditor General, in the presence of the Governor and Secretary of the Commonwealth.

SEC. 105. That when the loan provided in this act shall have been negotiated, and the indebtedness cancelled as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of the State Treasurer to ascertain as near as possible the aggregate amount of interest saved to the Commonwealth by the provisions of this act, as compared with the interest now paid, deducting all contingent expenses; and shall, at the time of making the then next semi-annual payment of interest, and semi-annually thereafter, pay over to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund a sum equal to the amount so saved; and all premiums which may be received under the provisions af this act, and all unclaimed balances, if any, shall be also paid over to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, to be applied to the cancellation of the public debt, in the same manner that all other receipts to that fund are applied.

SEC. 106. That the Governor and State Treasurer be and they are hereby authorized and empowered to issue certificates of loan in the manner and form provided for in the foregoing section of this act, reimbursable at a period not exceeding thirty-five years from their date, to any and all of such holders of the 5 per cent loan of the

Commonwealth as may signify their willingness to receive new certificates of loan, bearing an interest of 4 per cent or a less rate per annum, exempted from taxation, with coupons or interest certificates attached, payable semi-annually in gold and silver; and they shall further have the right to give the necessary notice and take such other steps as may be proper to accomplish the true intent and meaning of this section; and it shall be the duty of State Treasurer to communicate to the next Legislature a detailed statement of the proceedings under this act, showing the bids received for the loan, the names of the parties making such bids, and such other matters as may be deemed interesting and useful; *Provided*, That the certificates of loan authorized by an act "to provide for the immediate completion of the North Branch extension of the Pennsylvania Canal," approved the second day of April, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, shall not be subject to taxation for any purpose whatever; and it shall be the duty of the Governor to cause coupons to be attached to said certificates in the same manner and form as those required to be attached to the bonds to be issued under the provisions of this act; *And provided*, That no bids below par shall be entertained for any of said loans; *And provided further*, That proposals for the loan to complete the North Branch Canal shall be forthwith published for at least thirty days in one newspaper in Philadelphia, one in New York, and one in Boston.

COST OF LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The legislature of Massachusetts meets annually on the 1st Wednesday in January. The Senate is composed of forty members, and the House of some four hundred. The pay of members is two dollars per day, and traveling expenses. The Governor receives a salary of $2,500, and is chosen annually.

The *Commonwealth* furnishes the following statement of the expenses of the Legislature for the last two sessions—that is, for the sessions of 1851 and 1852. The session for 1851 commenced January 1st, and ended May 26. The session for 1852 commenced January 7th, and closed May 24th.

EXPENSES OF SESSION OF 1852.

Senate		$11,672 00
House of Representatives		114,126 00
Clerks		4,550 00
Messengers, door-keepers, &c.		3,265 50
Chaplains and election sermon		250 00
Resolves in favor of sick members		466 70
		$184,330 20
Pay of Council, old board	$355	
Pay of Council, new board	2,992	
		3,347 00
Newspapers, about		5,000 00
Total, 1852		$142,177 20

EXPENSES OF SESSION OF 1851.

Senate		$12,158 00
House of Representatives		118,124 00
Clerks		4,804 00
Door-keepers, &c.		250 00
Members per resolves		712 20
		$139,469 20
Pay of Council, old board	$461	
Pay of Council, new board	2,953	
		3,414 00
		$142,883 20
Newspapers, about		5,000 00
Total, 1851		$147,883 20

RECEIPTS OF BULLION, ETC., AT PANAMA, ON ENGLISH ACCOUNT.

The annexed statement exhibits the amount of specie and bullion received at Panama by the British Consul from California and Mexico, and from Peru and Chili, for each month in each of the past two years :—

	1850.		1851.	
	California and Mexico.	Peru and Chili.	California and Mexico.	Peru and Chili.
January	$137,254	$747,861	$773,662	$591,109
February	212,769	578,803	610,280	616,618
March	228,189	611,530	310,377	963,547
April	268,992	595,005	525,806	619,860
May	317,601	572,716	109,727	828,224
June	412,992	739,479	868,460	844,000
July	402,439	728,994	245,155	696,912
August	570,674	440,207	415,191	772,931
September	401,596	582,100	512,324	869,528
October	414,392	699,826	503,735	780,837
November	495,126	797,333	542,603	708,811
December	754,098	756,090	661,089	792,398
Total	$4,616,722	$7,849,944	$5,578,420	$9,080,565

Total amount received at Panama, as above, in 1850	$12,466,666
Total amount received at Panama, as above, in 1851	14,658,995
Total in two years	$27,125,661

A portion of this went to England direct from Chagres, and the balance by way of New York. Of the above aggregate, $10,195,142 was from California and Mexico. Since, soon after the first discovery of gold in California, several large English banking houses have had agents in San Francisco and in the mining regions, buying up gold dust, and shipping it to London. A large amount of dust has been drawn from California in the way of Commerce, in payment for cargoes of merchandise sent out direct from English ports.

SALE OF INDIANA CENTRAL RAILWAY BONDS.

The bids for the two hundred thousand dollars of the 7 per cent convertible bonds of the Indiana Central Railway Company were opened at the office of Winslow, Lanier & Co., New York, in June, 1852. There were bids for $535,000, more than $500,000 of which were at over 90 per cent. The $200,000 offered were awarded at prices varying from 95-10-100 to 97-72-100, making an average sale at 95-53-100 per cent, which is the best price yet obtained for a Western Railway loan. The successful bids were as follows:—

		Average net'g.			Average net'g.
$4,000....at	97.72	$3,908 80	5,000.....	95.55	4,777 50
5,000.....	96.75	4,837 50	34,000.....	95.52	32,470 80
5,000	96.56	4,828 00	4,000.....	95.51	3,820 40
5,000.....	96.35	4,667 00	5,000.....	95.50	4,775 00
2,000.....	95.92	1,918 40	5,000.....	95.35	4,767 50
1,000.....	95.91	959 10	10,000.....	95.31	9,531 00
5,000.....	95.86	4,793 00	9,000.....	95.30	8,577 00
7,000.....	95.81	6,706 70	10,000.....	95.26	9,526 00
5,000.....	95.80	4,790 00	21,000.....	95.25	20,002 50
5,000.....	95.75	4,787 50	5,000.....	95.15	4,757 50
5,000.....	95.67	4,783 50	8,000.....	95.10	7,608 00
20,000.....	95.65	19,130 00			
15,000.....	95.56	14,334 00	$200,000....at	95.53	$191,062 70

The successful bidders for the bonds were Clark, Dodge & Co., Norwich Savings Institution, Clinton Gilbert, Charles S. Francis, W. & J. O'Brien, Mervin & Gould, De Coppatt & Co., John Ferguson, Peter McMartin, John Thompson, A. Wylie, jr., C. T. Cromwell, Thomas McKenzie, and Chubb Brothers.

IDENTITY OF INDORSERS.

In a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, we published a few remarks on this subject. Those remarks have elicited from a correspondent of the *Evening Bulletin* the subjoined statement of facts, which are of great importance to Banks and Bankers:—

A person traveling from one part of the country to another, provides himself with funds in the shape of drafts drawn to his order, on banks and brokers. He cannot take gold, because it is inconvenient on account of its weight to carry it about his person, and it is dangerous to put it in his trunk. It is unsafe to carry bank-notes, because of the exposure to pick-pockets, to say nothing of the discount on such funds at different points. So, for his own convenience and security, he obtains drafts. These he knows cannot be cashed without his indorsement. If his pocket-book is stolen, he can obtain duplicate drafts, and the only inconvenience is loss of time.

He presents his draft at the counter of the bank where they are made payable, and is politely informed that he is not known to be the person represented in the draft, and that it will be necessary for him to identify himself He will probably reply, by assuring the teller that he *is* the proper person, and that there can be no mistake about it. The teller replies that it is very probably so, but there must be some evidence shown before the draft can be paid. If the stranger is an unreasonable man, his face will be flushed with mortification and anger, and he will inquire haughtily for the cashier. When shown into his room the same scene is gone over, only that by this time the stranger, by the delay, begins to think that he is suspected of being a swindler or forger. The cashier lays aside his pen and very patiently endeavors to show him the necessity for this caution. After some time thus spent, the stranger is convinced of one thing at least; namely, that unless he carries some evidences of his identity about him, such as his attested signature or other proof, he must find a reference; and he goes away mortified to comply with what he thinks, in *his* case at least, is unnecessary precaution.

Some time ago a person went to the post-office, in our city, and inquired for a letter. One answering to his description was delivered to him, which he opened. It contained a draft drawn in favor of the party to whom the letter was addressed. He wrote that name upon it and presented it at the bank, on which it was drawn for payment. Being a stranger to the teller, payment was refused, unless the party could identify himself. He then took from his pocket the letter which contained the draft, and exhibited *that* as proof, that he was the person represented. This seemed conclusive evidence to the teller, and the money was paid.

The real owner, not receiving his remittances, wrote to his correspondents that he had received no letter from them as he expected. They replied and gave a description of the draft. On inquiry at the bank, it was found that the indorsement was a forgery; and the bank was, of course, obliged to pay the amount to the true owner.

Only a few weeks ago, the cashier of a bank in the city of New York was thus imposed upon. A person who was lodging at one of the hotels, requested the proprietor to go with him to the bank and introduce him, that he might get a certificate of deposit cashed, which was made payable to his order. The polite landlord did so, and the money was paid. When the certificate was forwarded for payment to the bank which issued it, answer was returned that the indorsement was forged. The bank which cashed it must of course lose the amount.

Is it to be wondered at, that banks and brokers are cautious in dealing with strangers? Let travelers and strangers, in visiting places where they have no acquaintance, get such evidence of their identity as can easily be secured by their hand-writing properly attested.

THE SMALL NOTE CURRENCY.

New York has provided, and after the experience of fourteen years under the General Banking system, perfected, as near as may be, a reliable small note currency for the people. New England had preceded us, under what is known as the Suffolk system. The first is secured by stock collaterals and made redeemable at Albany or in this city, at the uniform rate of not exceeding one-quarter of one per cent. The last, without collaterals, is made redeemable at par at the Suffolk Bank in Boston. The New York plan, for ultimate security, is the best. The other, owing to popular opinion throughout New England, which rejects all small notes not provided for at the

Suffolk Bank, is substantially as convertible. The New York plan is quite as profitable, if not more so, to the honest banker as the other, for while collateral security is required, the security is taken in interest-paying stocks, and a charge equal to fifteen days interest allowed on redemption at Albany and New York.

The Metropolitan Bank of New York has made both systems uniform in trade. The New York small notes, whether redeemed at Albany or New York City, are deposited at one-quarter of one per cent off. The New England notes, redeemable in Boston, at fifteen cents off each hundred dollars. Under this management, every way unobjectionable to the banker, who aims only at a fair interest on his business, there would seem to be nothing wanting to a safe and convertible system of small notes. Yet attempts have not been withheld to defeat this purpose, and, if possible, supersede our own State currency, simply because a few of the makers of it, keeping no offices of general banking business in the interior, are not content with the shave to which they have been reduced by legal regulation. First, resort was had to the Banking Law of New Jersey, but the recent Legislature of that State, sensible of the abuse, ordered par redemption at points contiguous to New York and Philadelphia. Next, a bank in Michigan, based, for the sake of plausibility, on government securities, was used to the extent of some four hundred thousand dollars, and its notes shaved at three-fold the usual rate, by their own makers, in Wall-street. The Metropolitan Bank has corrected this dodge, and, after a fierce contest of a single week, in Michigan, has brought the bankers to terms. Another project is now started. A "National Bank" at Washington, owned in part or altogether in New York, is to be used for circulating small notes of inferior value to our own currency. This is announced as based on State stocks deposited at Washington, with whom, or by whom, does not appear, nor ought the question to weigh with the public, unless the notes are made as good in New York as New York small notes.

The chief objection to all these schemes is, that they aim to defeat our own salutary currency laws, and for this should be discountenanced by the public. They are the entering wedge to a general system of irredeemable "shin-plasters." The purpose is, to issue the notes at par to the money-borrower, and redeem them at the largest shave practicable, from the public who receive them in ordinary trade. The makers presume largely on the indifference of the latter to a fractional discount, in good times, and a yet larger loss by redemption when money grows scarce. The scheme is a vicious one. It aims to abrogate our own laws, and to supplant our own currency. It is without apology in this State, where the banker is allowed interest on his collaterals at Albany, and receives interest on his issues paid out on paper discounted.

Should the "National" issue be driven to its nominal home—which we trust will be the case through the Metropolitan or some other agency—it is quite possible the Free Banking Laws of the remoter States in the West will be resorted to. Indeed, a "State Stock Bank" at Cairo, Illinois, is already announced, and if under the semblance of "security" and the promise of 1 or 2 per cent redemption here, the notes can be forced into New York circulation, the scheme may soon be tried.—*Times.*

DEMAND FOR MONEY.

We are requested by the editors of the *Dubuque Herald* to call the attention of our capitalists to the facts contained in the following paragraph from the editorial columns of that Journal.

"Capitalists abroad will be better able to appreciate the state of our money market from a few facts we will present, than from any speculative disquisition we could write on the subject. By a reference to our advertising column it will be perceived that the only banking houses in the place, offer from 6 to 10 per centum for money placed with them on deposit. This speaks more than could a large treatise, and we trust it is sufficiently significant in its importance to induce capitalists from abroad to bring hither some of their surplus wealth for investment."

FINANCES OF CONNECTICUT.

The message of Governor Seymour, of Connecticut, states, that the financial affairs of the State are in a most prosperous condition. Its ordinary expenses for the fiscal year ending on the 31st of March, were $109,817 53, which with $26,832 paid to the School Fund, and $646 76 unpaid taxes, made a total of $137,326 18. The receipts for the year, including the balance of $26,266 22 on hand, were $176,456 21, leaving

a remainder of $39,103 03 beyond the expenditures. $8,000 of this has been appropriated to the payment of the indebtedness to the School Fund, which is now discharged in full, and the State commenced its present fiscal year entirely free from debt, and with $31,000 in its Treasury. Under these circumstances, the Governor recommends that the State tax be reduced from one to three-fourths of one per cent. The Governor reiterates his recomendation in favor of the adoption of the system of free banking in Connecticut.

ADULTERATION OF COINS IN PARIS.

The Paris correspondent of the *National Intelligencer* says, that remarkable ingenuity has been shown in Paris recently in the adulteration of money; and if the coins thus put in circulation were only used in the purchase of the corresponding coffee, there would not be much cause of complaint. The worthies engaged in this branch of forgeries are not so much counterfeiters of money as money alterers, or, to use the words literally, money *changers*. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—They take a genuine five-franc piece, and go to work as if they were about to manufacture a veritable snuff-box out of it. The process is obvious. One side of the coin is carefully removed by the use of a very thin fine saw; as much of the interior as possible is then cut out; the space left vacant is filled with a composition having the same weight, and nearly the same sound or *ring* as silver; then the side is carefully soldered on again, and the coin has of course the same outward appearance as before. Most of of the pieces thus altered bear the effigy either of Louis XVIII., Charles X., or Louis Philippe. The fraud was first detected at the Bank of France. The deterioration of the coins thus altered is about seven-tenths.

OF BONDS ISSUED BY RAILROAD CORPORATIONS IN MAINE.

The following "act in relation to bonds issued by railroad corporations," was approved by the Governor of Maine, January 30th, 1852, and is now in force.

AN ACT IN RELATION TO BONDS ISSUED BY RAILROAD CORPORATIONS.

SECTION 1. Every railroad corporation within this State, shall have power to issue its bonds for the purpose of building or furnishing its road, or paying any debts contracted in the building and equipment of the same; bearing interest not exceeding six per cent per annum; and secured in such manner as they may deem expedient.

SECT. 2. Bonds issued under the provisions of this act, shall not be for sums less than one hundred dollars; and all bonds issued by any company under this act, shall be binding on said company and collectable in law, notwithstanding such bonds are negotiated and sold by such corporation at less than the par value thereof.

SECT. 3. This shall take effect on and after its approval by the governor.

RICH MEN IN MASSACHUSETTS.

It is estimated that there are in Massachusetts 1,496 persons worth $50,000 and upwards. Of this number, 26 persons are worth a million or more, 45 a half million. Of the whole list, 705, or nearly half, began life poor or nearly so. Two hundred and eighty-two received their wealth by marriage. Of the whole list, 90 are farmers, 53 manufacturers of cotton, woolen, &c., 463 are merchants, 75 lawyers, 31 physicians, 12 clergymen, 46 brokers and speculators, 11 publishers, 4 editors, 50 shoemakers and shoe-dealers, 10 tailors and clothes dealers, 15 carpenters, 9 masons, 23 butchers and provision dealers, 14 distillers. Those put down as benevolent are 375. Old bachlors 68.

THE MERCHANT THAT KEPT TWO BANK ACCOUNTS.

The *Wall Street Journal* gives the following dialogue between two merchants in Wall-street:—

A.—Where do you keep your account? *B.*—I keep two; one in the Bank of New York, and the other in the Metropolitan Bank. *A.*—Why do you keep two? *B.*—Why, I have been in the habit of getting all the discounts I required from the good old New York, and I always keep a small balance in the Metropolitan, in order to get rid of my uncurrent money. Comment is unnecessary.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES COMPARED.

The following statement, showing the amounts of revenue from customs, collected at forty-three of the principal ports of the United States, from the 1st of July, 1851, to the 31st of March, 1852, and the comparison with that of the corresponding period of the preceding year, is interesting, as exhibiting the comparative foreign Commerce of the principal ports of entry in the United States. It will be observed that there is a decrease in the ports of New York and Boston, and a slight increase in those of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans. The greatest proportionate increase is in San Francisco. The inland ports generally exhibit a very large increase.

	1850–51.	1851–52.		1850–51.	1851–52.
New York.....	$24,375,012	$32,121,112	Sandusky	$19,913	$33,580
Boston..... ...	4,924,400	4,711,112	Eastport	18,305	14,168
Philadelphia....	2,830,899	2,890,048	Gloucester, Mass.	17,244	14,085
New Orleans.....	1,777,682	1,806,471	New Bedford....	15,832	16,763
Baltimore.....	776,380	800,772	Providence.....	30,849	22,428
Charleston, S. C..	501,387	455,263	Bristol.....	17,209	11,991
San Francisco...	596,931	1,779,945	New London....	15,604	7,781
St. Louis.....	142,406	197,990	Rochester.....	11,284	9,377
Portland.....	142,169	180,321	Lewiston.....	11,595	18,215
Savannah	159,602	113,632	Ogdensburg	12,320	16,878
Salem.....	117,976	89,429	Detroit	23,545	23,921
Mobile.....	62,398	90,729	Nashville.....	10,085	55,844
Alburg, Vt.....	57,684	28,422	Pittsburg, Pa....	2,177	12,386
Oswego.....	56,259	59,746	Chicago.....	4,861	2,168
Buffalo.....	51,240	78,021	Bath	11,214	6,688
Richmond.....	55,468	48,901	Wilmington.....	11,270	19,174
New Haven	49,454	57,722	Cape Vincent....	6,144	15,521
Norfolk.....	45,158	34,853	Newburyport ...	3,061	12,530
Cleveland	51,578	80,052	Georgetown, D. C.	9,935	13,022
Cincinnati.....	78,712	87,517	Alexandria, Va..	5,724	27,686
Louisville	48,897	41,605	Sackett's Harbor.	1,950	12,483
Plattsburg.....	40,396	48,585			

IMPORTATION OF EGGS INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

It appears from the annual returns relating to trade and navigation that in the year ending the 5th of January, 1852, the number of eggs imported was 115,526,236, being an increase on the preceding, when the number was 105,689,060. In the year ending the 5th of January, 1851, the duty was £38,577, and in the year ending the 5th of January, 1852, £42,149.

THE BANK AND COD FISHERY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

John Gilley, Esq., Collector of the Marblehead District in Massachusetts, has sent us the tabular statement on the following page, showing the tonnage employed and product of the Bank and Cod Fishery in the District of Marblehead, which includes the ports of Marblehead and Lynn, for the year ending December 31st, 1851. The statement is official, and the most complete that has ever before been published. It will be found, in connection with the series of papers on "The Fisheries of the United States," published in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, quite interesting, as well as useful, in illustrating the importance of this important branch of productive industry:—

AMOUNT OF THE TONNAGE EMPLOYED AND PRODUCT OF THE BANK AND COD FISHERY DURING THE FISHING SEASON ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1851.

Vessel's name.	Owner's name.	Master's name.	Fish landed & cured. Quin'ls.	Price.	Amount.	Oil. Bbls.	Galls.	Price.	Amount.	Tonnage. Tons. ft.	Crew. Men.	Am't of fish & oil.	Bounty.	Total fish, oil & bounty.
Sch'r Erie....	John H. Gregory	Thomas Chapman	815½	2 50	$2,038 75	12	360	17 00	$204 00	83 03	9	$2,242 75	$332 13	$2,574 88
" Ceres..	John Quiner....	J. T. Dissmore...	1,420	2 50	3,500 00	19	570	17 00	323 00	88 26	7	3,873 00	353 09	4,226 09
Mary Susan..	H. F. Pitman...	J. Gilley, 2d	1,400	2 62	3,668 00	15	450	17 50	262 50	77 62	9	3,930 50	310 61	4,241 11
Zac. Taylor...	John Quiner....	N. Warren.....	1,412	2 50	3,530 00	19	570	17 00	323 00	76 60	7	3,853 00	306 53	4,159 53
Ben. Franklin.	G. Knight.....	R. B. Ireson.....	1,519	2 50	3,797 50	20	600	16 00	320 00	83 30	7	4,117 50	338 26	4,450 76
Barnard.....	G. Knight.. ...	D. Symonds, jr...	1,298	2 50	3,245 00	16	480	16 00	256 00	72 37	7	3,501 00	289 56	3,790 56
Martha.....	G. Cloutman ...	T. Tindley, jr....	1,140	2 62	2,986 80	18	540	17 00	306 00	71 51	8	3,292 80	286 15	3,578 95
Alciope.....	G. Knight.....	J. Bridgeo.....	1,800	2 50	4,500 00	16	480	16 00	256 00	92 47	10	4,756 00	360 00	5,116 00
S. Knight....	G. Knight.....	T. J. Peach	1,434	2 50	3,585 00	16	480	16 00	256 00	78 50	7	3,841 00	314 11	4,155 11
Atlantic. ...	T. Wooldridge..	E. Dixey	1,337½	2 62	3,504 25	16	480	17 00	272 00	86 37	7	3,776 25	345 56	4,121 81
Gazelle	G. Cloutman ...	J. S. Bailey	1,353	2 62	3,544 86	18	540	17 00	306 00	73 49	7	3,850 86	294 06	4,144 92
W. Franklin..	S. H. Brown ...	J. Glass, jr.....	1,270	2 70	3,429 00	14	420	16 00	224 00	80 26	8	3,653 00	321 09	3,974 09
Decatur.....	R. Courtis	A. H. Missewey .	1,396	2 70	3,769 00	16	480	17 00	272 00	85 45	7	4,041 20	341 89	4,383 09
Essex.....	S. Standley	J. Clothey.....	539½	2 87	1,548 37	3	90	17 50	52 50	78 26	9	1,600 87	313 09	1,913 96
Beverly.....	R. Courtis	T. B. Pedrick....	1,193	2 70	3,221 10	14	420	17 00	238 00	74 72	7	3,459 10	299 03	3,758 13
Robin.....	R. B. Ramsdell..	R. B. Ramsdell...	1,417	2 70	3,825 90	14	420	17 00	238 00	84 61	7	4,063 90	338 57	4,402 47
Rose.....	J. Hidden.....	F. F. Swett.....	1,200	2 60	3,120 00	12	360	17 00	204 00	87 33	7	3,324 00	349 39	3,673 39
Bird.....	W. Bowler.....	R. Ireson.....	1,303½	2 65	3,453 61	16	480	17 00	272 00	82 18	7	3,725 61	328 76	4,054 37
Gen. Jackson .	S. H. Brown....	W. C. Anthony ..	974	2 75	2,678 50	12	360	16 00	192 00	80 87	7	2,870 50	323 66	3,194 16
Eliza Ann....	G. Barker, 2d...	T. Barker.....	483	2 50	1,207 50	4	120	17 00	68 00	70 19	7	1,275 50	280 81	1,556 31
Rebecca.....	K. Martin, 2d...	W. Frost, 2d.....	1,517	2 62	3,974 54	15	450	17 50	262 50	96 45	7	4,237 04	360 00	4,597 04
Elizabeth....	H. F. Pitman...	B. Rose	1,178	2 65	3,121 70	14	420	17 00	238 00	71 58	7	3,359 70	286 44	3,646 14
Odd Fellow...	J. O. Bowden...	A. J. Bowden ...	700	1 40	980 00	10	300	15 00	150 00	35 44	6	1,130 00	141 85	1,271 85
Amy Knight.	G. Knight.....	B. Knight.....	1,078	2 62	2,824 36	14	420	16 00	224 00	93 50	7	3,048 36	360 00	3,408 36
Emeline.....	W. Humphreys..	J. Chadwick.....	1,500	2 70	4,050 00	14	420	15 00	210 00	107 87	7	4,260 00	360 00	4,620 00
Ariel.....	J. P. Turner....	L. Turner.....	1,100	2 50	2,750 00	11	330	17 50	192 50	104 15	7	2,942 50	360 00	3,302 50
Colonel Orne.	J. B. Topham...	J. B. Ellwell	961½	1 40	1,345 75	14	420	15 00	210 00	54 06	5	1,555 75	216 25	1,772 00
Botanick.....	W. Goodwin ...	W. Goodwin	170	1 40	238 00	4	120	15 00	60 00	11 00	5	298 00	48 59	346 59
Lavancha ...	J. Glass	J. Glass	150	1 40	210 00	3	90	15 00	45 00	10 75	3	255 00	37 76	292 76
Cadet.....	J. White.....	J. White	579	1 40	810 60	5	150	15 00	75 00	25 48	5	885 60	89 27	974 87
Balance.....	K. Martin, 2d...	E. B. Thompson..	1,377	2 62	3,607 74	15	450	17 50	262 50	89 32	7	3,870 24	357 35	4,227 59
Total at Marblehead.....			35,015	....	88,116 03	409	12,270		6,774 50	2,310 53	217	94,890 53	9,038 86	103,929 39
At the port of Lynn.....			13,104	3 00	39,302 00		15 237		10,673 00	700 82	111	49,975 00	2,512 87	52,487 87
Total amount in the district of Marblehead..			48,119	...	127,418 03		27,507		17,447 50	3,011 40	328	144,865 53	11,551 73	156,417 26

IMPORTS OF IRON INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1851.

A STATEMENT OF THE IMPORT OF VARIOUS KINDS OF IRON INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN EACH MONTH DURING YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1851.

	Sheets and plates. Tons.* cwt. qr. lbs.	Hoops and rods. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Bars. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Railroad iron. Tons. cwt qr. lbs.	Pig iron. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Rus. Sw. & Nor. iron. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.	Total each month. Tons. cwt. qr. lbs.
January	511 2 3 10	354 0 0 21	2,278 6 0 2	772 0 1 18	3,247 10 0 0	1,495 0 2 14	8,658 0 0 9
February	650 17 2 1	422 7 1 5	2,555 12 1 4	1,133 19 1 1	883 0 0 0	118 13 1 18	5,764 9 3 1
March	512 19 1 14	919 1 0 13	5,279 6 1 5	3,922 1 1 14	3,815 0 0 0	1,191 8 3 24	15,639 17 0 14
First quarter	1,674 19 2 25	1,795 8 2 11	10,113 4 2 11	5,828 1 0 5	7,945 10 0 0	2,805 3 0 0	30,062 6 3 24
April	1,079 10 2 6	814 12 1 0	6,157 4 0 20	5,667 10 2 3	3,774 5 0 0	368 5 1 5	17,861 7 3 6
May	1,332 4 1 26	1,407 9 3 12	5,999 17 1 20	17,097 18 3 18	7,546 4 2 7	1,296 17 1 26	34,680 12 2 25
June	1,072 7 1 19	977 7 3 14	4,441 0 1 1	11,415 4 3 15	6,080 16 0 0	628 10 1 16	24,605 6 3 8
Second quarter	3,484 2 1 22	3,299 9 3 26	16,588 1 3 13	34,180 14 1 8	17,401 5 2 7	2,293 13 0 19	77,861 7 1 11
First 6 months	5,159 2 0 19	5,094 18 2 9	26,701 6 1 24	40,008 15 1 13	25,346 15 2 7	5,098 16 0 19	107,209 14 1 7
July	792 18 2 10	947 19 2 21	3,907 14 3 2	9,512 13 3 27	6,879 11 1 26	1,189 16 0 11	22,910 14 2 12
August	1,012 17 3 13	615 3 2 15	4,242 4 3 3	22,852 12 1 17	4,072 0 0 0	608 13 0 0	33,403 11 2 20
September	1,075 7 3 27	930 8 3 9	3,630 14 3 11	29,020 8 2 13	3,910 12 0 3	2,863 17 0 21	40,741 9 1 20
Third quarter	3,061 4 1 22	2,293 12 0 6	11,780 14 1 16	61,395 15 0 1	14,362 4 2 1	4,162 6 1 4	97,055 15 2 25
October	1,398 18 3 24	982 7 1 0	4,183 2 0 21	17,367 3 0 18	2,872 15 0 0	2,519 2 0 24	29,823 8 3 3
November	700 13 1 10	768 1 2 21	2,674 3 0 12	14,998 18 0 9	5,885 6 0 0	972 6 0 8	25,941 13 1 4
December	296 10 1 23	891 14 1 23	1,930 3 1 23	7,468 0 0 12	2,066 2 1 17	1,798 0 2 21	13,950 11 2 7
Fourth quarter	2,395 17 3 1	2,142 3 1 16	8,787 13 3 0	39,826 6 1 11	11,274 3 1 17	5,289 8 3 25	69,715 13 2 14
Second 6 months	5,457 2 0 3	4,435 15 1 25	20,568 8 0 16	101,222 1 1 12	25,636 7 3 18	9,451 15 1 1	166,771 9 1 11
Total in 1851	10,616 4 0 22	9,530 14 0 6	47,269 14 2 12	141,230 16 2 25	50,983 3 1 25	14,550 11 1 20	273,981 3 2 18
Total in 1850	9,575 19 1 23	8,618 11 2 26	50,919 12 3 2	70,032 14 1 25	38,951 15 2 2	12,993 1 3 18	186,091 15 2 20
Excess in 1851	1,040 4 2 27	5,612 2 1 8	3,649 18 0 18	71,19 82 10	12,031 7 3 23	1,557 9 2 2	87,889 7 3 26

* All tons of 2,224 lbs.

THE CHEESE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The *Cincinnati Price Current*, in accordance with its custom, gives a brief review of the cheese trade for the season of 1851–52, from which we derive the subjoined statements. The following table shows the monthly average price for good merchantable Western Reserve Cheese in the months of each year, from 1848 to 1852 :—

	'48-9.	'49-50.	'50-1.	'51-2.		'48-9.	'49-50.	'50-1.	'51-2.
April ....cts.	8½	6⅝	6½	6⅝	November...	6½	5⅝	6½	6½
May.....	6½	6½	5⅝	6½	December....	6½	6	6½	6½
June	6	6	6	6	January.....	6⅝	6½	6⅝	6½
Suly	5⅝	6	6	6½	February	6	6⅝	7	6⅝
August.....	5⅝	6⅝	6	6½	March	6½	7½	7½	7
September ..	5⅝	6½	6	6½	Yearly av...	6½	6½	6½	6
October.....	6	6½	6	6½					

It is seen the average prices for the past season are better than for either of the three preceding years.

The receipts at the port of Cincinnati during the last five years ending March 31, were, in boxes, as follows :—

1847–8.	1848–9.	1849–50.	1850–1.	1851–2.
139,878	152,373	124,755	189,494	258,844

Estimating the average weight of boxes at 35 pounds, and the amount received would be as follows in pounds :—

1847–8.	1848–9.	1849–50.	1850–1.	1851–2.
4,895,730	5,333,055	4,466,425	6,632,180	8,884,540

Thus, it is seen, the receipts since 1847–8 have increased very nearly 100 per cent.

With regard to the *future* of this trade, we may say there is every prospect that the increase for years to come will be even more rapid than heretofore, and it is very safe, we think, to predict that in ten years, *i. e.*, in 1861–2, the receipts at this port will be 30,000,000 pounds, which amount is 13,000,000 less than the present yearly receipts at the port of New York.

Cincinnati is the distributing point for a vast extent of territory, where the consumption of cheese is rapidly increasing. The following States are now supplied, in a great measure, from this point; namely, Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Tennessee, and Texas, besides a portion of Ohio. The free population of these States, according to the last census, was about eight millions, leaving twelve millions for the remainder of the United States. Now let us see by whom the cheese is produced. The amount of cheese produced by each State during the year ending June 30, 1850, was as follows :—

Maine.....lbs.	2,201,195	Alabama.....lbs.	30,423
New Hampshire.....	3,196,568	Mississippi.....	20,314
Vermont.....	6,755,006	Louisiana.....	1,143
Massachusetts.....	7,124,461	Texas.....	92,018
Rhode Island	296,748	Arkansas.....	28,440
Connecticut.....	4,513,019	Tennessee.....	179,577
New York.....	49,785,905	Kentucky.....	228,744
New Jersey.	500,819	Michigan.....	1,042,551
Pennsylvania...	2,895,279	Ohio.....	21,350,478
Delaware.....	3,187	Indiana.	666,986
Maryland.....	3,925	Illinois.....	1,283,858
District of Columbia.....	none.	Missouri.....	201,597
Virginia.....	434,850	Iowa.....	198,444
North Carolina.....	95,043	Wisconsin....	440,961
South Carolina.....	4,810		
Florida.....	18,324	Total.....	35,765,539
Georgia.....	46,391		
Total.....	77,875,527		

Thus, it is seen, the States containing a population of about twelve millions produce over seventy-seven million pounds of cheese annually, while the Western and

Southern States, with a free population of eight millions, produce only thirty-five million pounds. Of the former, New York produces forty-nine million, and of the latter, Ohio produces twenty-one million. The Southern States produce a very small quantity in proportion to their population, and as it is not now, nor is not likely to become a profitable business in those States, the consumptive demand must be supplied from Ohio, and hence we may look for a steady increase in the trade at this point, Cincinnati being, as already remarked, the distributing market for the South and West, and as railroads are extended, the area of country supplied from this place will increase. Before many years elapse, North and South Carolina and Georgia will be connected by railroads with Cincinnati, and, indeed, already the merchants of that city are receiving orders from Georgia, the Chattanooga Railroad having connected some portions of that State with the western rivers.

When the statistics of this trade in the United States are fully considered in connection with the facts presented, our prediction that the yearly trade at the port of Cincinnati will in ten years have increased to thirty million pounds, will not be regarded as too large an estimate. This increase would be greatly less than that experienced in New York. The receipts at that port in 1834 were 6,340,000 pounds; in 1844, 29,672,000; and in 1850, 43,097,000.

COMMERCE OF SWEDEN.

The following table of the Commerce of Sweden during the year 1850, is derived from official tables just published. It will be seen from this table that Sweden imports more from Brazil than any other country, and that her exports to Great Britain and Ireland are double what they are to any other country. The trade of Sweden with the United States, in exports and imports, amounts to Rd. bko. 4,157,000.

	Imported.	Exported.
Norway.....Rd. bko.	2,317,000	778,000
Finland	422,000	691,000
Russia	1,698,000	272,000
Denmark	1,733,000	3,673,000
Prussia	451,000	1,874,000
Mecklenburg	51,000	452,000
Lubeck	4,083,000	1,313,000
Hamburg	647,000	111,000
Bremen	243,000	186,000
Hanover and Oldenburg	1,000	89,000
Netherlands	561,000	468,000
Belgium	74,000	266,000
Great Britain and Ireland	3,332,000	7,741,000
France	479,000	2,074,090
Spain	245,000	342,000
Portugal	153,000	889,000
Gibraltar and Malta	.....	52,000
Italy	152,000	248,000
Austria	.....	82,000
Egypt	.....	11,000
Algiers	.....	298,000
Rest of North Africa	.....	5,000
United States	1,639,000	2,518,000
West Indies	161,000	.....
Brazil	4,330,000	299,000
Plata States, rest of North and South America	.....	31,000
Cape of Good Hope	.....	131,000
East Indies and Australia	1,215,000	211,000
Total Bko. Rd.	23,987,000	24,505,000

The import of coffee was, in 1841, 5,300,000 lbs.; in 1850, it was about 8,000,000 lbs. Raw sugar was imported in 1841 in the quantity of 14,500,000 lbs.; in 1850, it reached 25,000,000 lbs. Arrac, rum, and cognac, in 1846, 290,000 cans; in 1850, 390,000 cans.

The commercial fleet consisted, in 1840, of 2,171 vessels, of 175,558 tons; in 1850, of

2,744 vessels, of 225,966 tons. The merchant fleet of Stockholm decreases annually, while that of Gothenburg and Gefle increases rapidly. In 1850, 841 vessels were engaged in foreign trade, with a burden of 141,746 tons, their crews amounted to 1,283 officers, and 8,050 men, an increase, since 1840, of 283 officers and 1,106 men.

The Navigation act was used in Sweden in 1850 by 7 English ships, of 2,522 tons; in England, by 112 Swedish vessels, of 26,032 tons.

MARINE DISASTERS ON THE NORTHERN LAKES.

John C. Dodge, Esq., agent for the New York Board of Underwriters, has sent us a tabular statement of marine disasters, losses to vessels, &c., on the Northern Lakes in 1851, and also a comparative statement for the years 1848 to 1851, inclusive, a summary of which we here subjoin:—

LOSS OF LIFE, DAMAGE TO VESSELS, ETC., IN 1851.

Date.	Loss of life.	Damage to vessels. English.	Damage to vessels. U. States.	Damage to cargoes. English.	Damage to cargoes. U. States.	Total.
March.....	..	.....	$350	....	.....	$350
April.....	10	$30,300	30,770	$1,350	$5,000	67,420
May	16	3,000	47,580	....	24,350	74,930
June.....	..	500	11,300	1,500	14,350	27,450
July	1	2,500	19,750	1,500	8,650	32,400
August.....	1	400	12,570	....	8,200	21,170
September...	2	9,000	25,650	10,000	4,350	49,000
October.....a	39	12,000	70,350	6,000	92,600	180,950
November ...	1	3,800	75,000	1,500	102,350	182,650
December....	5	500	73,100	1,000	4,000	78,600
	75	$62,000	$366,420	$22,850	$263,650	$714,920
Tot'l dam'e to Eng. cargoes		22,850	Tot'l dam'e to Amer. ves'ls		366,420	
		$84,850			$630,070	

GENERAL COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	Grand Total.
Loss of life.....	40	46	430	75	591
Loss to American vessels	$230,963	$189,750	$397,580	$366,420	$1,184,713
Loss to American cargoes.....	106,700	161,250	114,850	263,650	646,450
Loss to English vessels	31,600	11,000	26,700	62,000	131,300
Loss to English cargoes.....	23,000	6,500	2,500	22,850	54,850
Grand totals	$392,263	$368,500	$541,630	$714,920	$2,017,313

TIMBER TRADE OF QUEBEC.

The timber forming this trade consists of white pine, red pine, oak, elm, tamarac and spruce. White pine forms three-fourths of all the timber received at Quebec. The aggregate amount of all kinds, in cubic feet, exported from there to Great Britain, for two seasons, has been as follows:—

1850.	1851.	Increase.
22,128,203	23,951,393	1,823,195

The vast amount of commerce made by this amount of timber, with the staves, sawed lumber, and articles of produce exported from Quebec, is indicated by the arrivals at that port. The arrivals by sea at Quebec have been, for two seasons, as follows:—

1850.		1851.		Increase.	
Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1,078	536,379	1,185	506,024	107	68,655

COMMERCE OF CEYLON.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS INTO AND FROM THE ISLAND OF CEYLON, ALSO THE TOTAL REVENUE DERIVED THEREFROM IN THE SHAPE OF CUSTOM DUTIES, TOGETHER WITH THE NUMBER OF VESSELS WHICH ENTERED INWARDS AND CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Year.	Vessels inward. Tons.	Vessels outward. Tons.	Total revenue. £	Value of imports. £	Value of exports. £
1836.....	71,232	68,488	140,106	411,167	308,702
1837.....	81,345	83,563	137,564	595,888	326,860
1838..	96,292	95,667	107,538	547,501	293,315
1839.....	105,838	100,166	134,010	661,920	375,608
1840.....	103,005	104,015	116,943	733,513	409,947
1841.....	109,606	109,187	110,250	679,070	368,383
1842.....	130,327	124,692	192,745	794,758	463,445
1843.....	140,853	139,622	125,700	1,034,531	421,083
1844.....	169,128	162,953	155,096	1,367,504	582,367
1845.....	196,364	189,815	148,519	1,494,824	588,100
1846.....	211,946	212,424	141,771	1,372,701	679,286
1847... ...	228,738	228,998	150,326	1,421,737	961,119
1848.....	229,155	233,842	119,365	1,235,443	1,448,901
1849.....	234,135	232,836	119,192	1,367,549	1,206,149
1850.....	242,264	248,398	129,457	1,488,678	1,246,956

STATEMENT SHOWING THE EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF COLONIAL PRODUCE DURING THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS.

	EXPORTS OF PRODUCE.					
Year.	Coffee.	Cinnamon.	Cocoa-nut Oil.		Coir.	
	Cwts.	Lbs.	Gallons.	Casks.	Cwts.	Coils & bundles.
1836	60,320	724,364	409,012	....	10,482½	17,923
1837	34,164	558,110	630,677	8,976	36,787½	.....
1838	49,541	398,198	242,680	284	24,895½	.....
1839	41,863	596,592	357,543	....	22,195½	.....
1840	68,206	389,373	475,742	....	23,441	.....
1841	80,584	317,919	321,966	....	21,643½	.....
1842	119,805	121,145	475,967	....	26,131	.....
1843	94,847	662,704	726,206	....	20,187½	.....
1844	133,957	1,057,841	443,301	....	25,976½	.....
1845	178,603	408,211	282,186	....	19,540½	.....
1846	173,892	401,656	123,981	....	23,197½	.....
1847	293,221	447,369	197,851	....	23,520½	.....
1848	280,010	491,688	311,526	8	25,199½	10
1849	273,593	733,782	513,279	....	28,422	2
1850	278,473	644,857	407,960	....	39,886½	120

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The following table will show the amount of tonnage which entered the ports of Great Britain and the United States for nine years:—

	UNITED STATES.			GREAT BRITAIN.		
	American.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total
1842.....	1,510,111	732,755	2,242,886	1,680,838	974,769	2,655,607
1843.....	1,113,523	531,752	1,648,275	2,919,528	1,005,894	3,925,422
1844.....	1,977,438	916,992	2,894,430	3,087,437	1,143,896	4,231,333
1845.....	2,035,486	910,563	2,946,049	3,689,853	1,353,735	4,043,588
1846.....	2,221,028	969,178	3,189,206	3,022,808	1,407,963	4,430,771
1847.....	2,101,358	1,120,346	3,221,704	4,238,056	1,552,096	4,790,152
1848.....	2,393,402	1,405,191	3,798,593	4,020,415	1,519,046	4,539,461
1849.....	2,658,321	1,710,515	3,368,836	4,390,375	1,680,894	5,071,269
1850.....	2,573,016	1,779,623	3,352,639	4,070,544	2,055,152	6,125,696
1851.....	3,054,349	1,939,091	4,993,440	4,388,245	2,599,988	6,988,243

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following tables, derived from the official report of the Canal Commissioners, show the the total quantity of each article which came to tide-water on all of the canals, and the estimated value of each article during the years 1849, 1850, and 1851:

STATEMENT SHOWING THE TOTAL QUANTITY OF EACH ARTICLE WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER ON ALL THE CANALS DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, AND 1851.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
THE FOREST.			
Fur and peltry ..... lbs.	554,531	656,000	484,160
PRODUCT OF WOOD.			
Boards and scantling ..... feet	297,431,140	425,095,442	457,288,982
Shingles ..... M.	51,258	1,868,083	57,706
Timber ..... cubic feet	1,497,627	1,666,262	3,189,179
Staves ..... lbs.	154,159,359	202,224,000	157,251,190
Wood ..... cords	11,977	12,411	12,640
Ashes, pot and pearl ..... bbls.	31,289	52,237	29,198
AGRICULTURE.—PRODUCT OF ANIMALS.			
Pork ..... bbls.	73,965	46,618	45,013
Beef	105,492	97,259	77,798
Bacon ..... lbs.	8,477,754	9,680,000	10,901,923
Cheese	42,097,818	32,584,000	25,598,945
Butter	20,880,409	17,102,000	9,564,268
Lard	9,083,062	8,278,000	10,814,940
Lard oil ..... gallons	.....	67,460	240,768
Wool ..... lbs.	12,731,402	11,986,000	10,517,408
Hides	596,364	458,000	571,743
Tallow	.....	578,000	267,310
VEGETABLE FOOD.			
Flour ..... bbls.	3,263,087	3,256,077	3,358,465
Wheat ..... bushels	2,734,389	3,670,754	2,163,682
Rye	322,942	472,805	302,608
Corn	5,121,270	3,228,056	7,670,345
Corn meal ..... bbls.	.....	11,983	7,335
Barley ..... bushels	1,400,194	1,744,867	1,881,101
Oats	2,407,895	2,469,637	3,634,682
Bran and shipstuffs ..... lbs.	2,022,031	402,464,000	45,476,249
Peas and beans ..... bushels	160,234	79,515	129,502
Potatoes	242,211	230,699	600,182
Dried fruit ..... lbs.	780,369	1,468,000	1,426,350
ALL OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.			
Cotton ..... lbs.	316,094	1,114,000	237,330
Unmanufactured tobacco	1,896,056	796,000	3,698,690
Hemp	.....	66,000	1,161,040
Clover and grass seed	2,479,098	1,418,000	559,400
Flax seed	1,381,684	1,146,000	156,500
Hops	1,877,805	860,000	550,886
MANUFACTURES.			
Domestic spirits ..... gallons	2,107,595	1,517,095	2,810,498
Beer ..... bbls.	.....	95	63
Linseed oil ..... gallons	.....	908	100

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Oil meal and cake.....lbs.	.....	6,392,000	6,814,000
Starch.....	.....	2,744,000	2,556,932
Leather.....	5,532,610	7,176,000	8,203,605
Furniture.....	1,116,800	1,102,000	1,056,719
Agricultural implements.....	.....	16,000	316,840
Bar and pig lead.....	11,167	88,000	16,400
Pig iron.....	9,636,166	5,276,000	6,756,400
Castings.....	.....	1,580,000	2,470,730
Machines, and parts thereof.....	.....	280,000	153,310
Bloom and bar iron.....	27,906,016	22,126,000	33,449,234
Iron ware.....	1,737,690	.....	3,700
Domestic woolens.....	1,055,513	1,018,000	824,340
Domestic cottons.....	2,498,425	1,868,000	2,249,835
Domestic salt.....	283,333	13,164,000	12,962,156
Foreign salt.....	.....	1,326,600	1,195,000
OTHER ARTICLES.			
Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....lbs.	.....	1,578,000	869,350
Stone, lime, and clay.....	51,323,818	87,916,000	104,167,030
Gypsum.....	2,551,600	6,950,000	9,669,600
Eggs.....	.....	3,280,000	3,678,264
Mineral coal.....	25,169,939	32,146,000	40,622,220
Fish.....	.....	458,000	277,515
Copper ore.....	.....	104,000	417,780
Flint enameled ware.....	.....	2,000	.....
Sundries.....	110,244,928	94,112,000	111,020,090

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AGGREGATE, IN TONS, UNDER THE DIVISIONS AS SPECIFIED IN THE ABOVE TABLE.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
The forest.....	665,547	947,768	921,337
Agriculture.....	796,600	926,048	895,096
Manufactures.....	44,288	39,669	53,558
Merchandise.....	5,873	7,105	5,349
Other articles.....	94,638	113,273	135,365
Total.....	1,579,946	2,033,863	2,010,700

STATEMENT SHOWING THE ESTIMATED VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER, ON ALL THE CANALS, DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, 1851.

THE FOREST.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Fur and peltry.....lbs.	$692,864	$818,845	$605,200
PRODUCT OF WOOD.			
Boards and scantling.....feet	4,459,157	6,365,724	7,226,127
Shingles.....M.	153,774	202,668	205,399
Timber.....cubic feet	119,598	440,490	697,465
Staves.....lbs.	693,701	908,612	745,482
Wood.....cords	56,892	60,748	58,855
Ashes, pot and pearl.....bbls.	1,016,800	1,518,035	841,731
AGRICULTURE.—PRODUCT OF ANIMALS.			
Pork.....bbls.	768,421	512,798	663,940
Beef.....	1,244,860	866,789	661,800
Bacon.....lbs.	514,666	580,922	980,956
Cheese.....	2,736,211	1,955,122	1,663,606
Butter.....	2,923,832	2,391,863	1,338,997
Lard.....	635,814	620,868	973,340
Lard oil.....gallons	.....	42,506	168,537
Wool.....lbs.	4,072,358	4,372,578	4,101,416
Hides.....	59,637	54,891	68,432
Tallow.....	.....	40,524	18,712

VEGETABLE FOOD.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Flour.....bbls.	16,315,425	16,280,425	13,486,542
Wheat.....bushels	2,993,160	3,937,768	3,051,110
Rye.....	187,545	315,928	198,099
Corn.....	2,970,482	2,000,890	4,447,682
Corn meal.....bbls.	.....	35,949	20,172
Barley.....bushels	868,115	1,417,827	1,464,541
Oats.....	868,084	1,014,678	1,363,352
Bran and shipstuffs.....lbs.	242,755	927,853	366,691
Peas and beans.....bushels	160,234	89,382	143,299
Potatoes.....	117,918	123,269	342,275
Dried fruit.....lbs.	78,007	132,019	114,108

ALL OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Cotton.....lbs.	29,240	153,239	25,530
Unmanufactured tobacco.....	237,007	159,005	813,712
Hemp.....	.....	4,960	75,469
Clover and grass seed.....	148,746	92,106	41,817
Flax seed.....	30,536	27,745	3,130
Hops.....	162,893	159,647	146,380

MANUFACTURES.

Domestic spirits.....gallons	526,938	394,301	632,489
Beer.....	.....	475	315
Linseed oil.....gallons	.....	591	66
Oil meal and cake.....lbs.	.....	79,859	85,155
Starch.....	.....	144,054	135,734
Leather.....	885,080	1,148,068	1,230,572
Furniture.....	111,631	110,180	105,672
Agricultural implements.....	.....	777	15,840
Bar and pig lead.....	503	4,300	820
Pig iron.....	96,262	52,769	67,563
Castings.....	.....	47,428	74,350
Machines and parts.....	.....	27,895	15,331
Bloom and bar iron.....	558,120	442,508	668,985
Iron ware.....	52,131	.....	111
Domestic woolens.....	895,991	891,204	725,419
Domestic cotton.....	698,816	558,532	539,312
Domestic salt.....	73,666	52,612	56,975
Foreign salt.....	.....	5,311	1,196

OTHER ARTICLES.

Live cattle, hogs, and sheep.....lbs.	.....	47,349	26,100
Stone, lime, and clay.....	74,060	118,482	139,882
Gypsum.....	5,742	14,949	19,339
Eggs.....	.....	197,544	220,945
Mineral coal.....	56,633	90,951	102,282
Fish.....	.....	14,319	12,547
Copper ore.....	.....	15,747	62,667
Flint enameled ware.....	.....	240	.....
Sundries.....	2,182,548	1,822,914	2,205,495

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AGGREGATE VALUE OF THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER, ON ALL THE CANALS, DURING THE YEARS 1849, 1850, 1851, UNDER THE DIVISIONS AS SPECIFIED IN THE ABOVE TABLE.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
The forest.....	$7,192,796	$10,315,117	$10,880,259
Agriculture.....	38,455,456	38,311,546	36,520,296
Manufactures.....	3,899,238	3,960,854	4,355,907
Merchandise.....	508,048	563,615	406,711
Other articles.....	2,319,983	2,323,495	2,789,257
Total.....	$52,375,521	$55,474,627	$54,452,430

GALENA AND CHICAGO UNION RAILROAD.

The Galena and Chicago Union Railroad now extends from Galena to Cherry Valley, a distance of 84 miles, and has two branch roads. It is among the most profitable roads in the west, from an advertisement in the *Chicago Democrat* we learn that this road has declared a half-yearly dividend of eight per cent on the capital stock paid in of the first division of the road. This makes the entire dividend for the fiscal year 1851-2, equal to fifteen per cent, beside leaving a large surplus of cash on hand.

The following table shows the earnings of the entire road and branches for the past three fiscal years. In the month of May, 1849, are included the earnings of March and April preceding. The cars commenced running in March, 1849.

	1849–50.	1850–51.	1851–52.
May	$1,231 83	$10,826 01	$16,122 14
June	913 35	9,253 40	18,886 20
July	1,602 52	9,715 62	19,096 68
August	2,743 18	7,777 28	14,360 96
September	4,267 43	14,058 85	19,443 26
October	7,106 03	17,641 40	24,918 14
November	5,899 48	12,653 11	19,301 19
December	5,008 21	12,520 96	18,639 48
January	5,356 46	11,593 39	18,667 38
February	5,132 62	6,172 34	21,859 15
March	4,985 81	14,523 66	24,559 50
April	6,008 67	13,096 96	20,825 35
	$50,225 54	$140,533 08	$236,673 28

TOLLS, TRADE, AND TONNAGE OF THE CANALS.

The following statement, condensed from the late report of the Auditor of the Canal Department, presents an exhibit for several years of the average tonnage of the boat, of the time necessary to make a passage, and the cost to bring a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany, of the lockages at Alexander's lock, and the total tons delivered at tide-water from the Erie Canal, and of the total tolls, is as follows:—

Years.	Average tonnage of boat.	Days betw'n Albany & Buffalo.	Fr't on a bbl. flour. *Cents.*	Lockages at Alexander's Lock.	Tons delivered at tide-water from Erie Canal.	Total tolls.
1841....	41	9	71	30,320	532,520	$2,034,883
1844....	49	7¼	60	28,219	790,816	2,446,374
1847....	67	10½	77	43,957	1,431,252	3,639,381
1848....	71	9	58	34,911	1,184,337	3,262,213
1849....	68	8¼	56	36,918	1,266,724	3,268,226
1850....	76	9	58	38,444	1,554,675	3,273,896
1851....	78	8½	49	40,396	1,507,677	3,329,787

A comparison of the results of the last year's business with that of 1841, ten years ago, shows that while the boat has nearly doubled its capacity, the time necessary to make a passage from Buffalo to Albany is diminished half a day, transportation is cheapened 30 per cent, or 22 cents on a barrel of flour; and that while the lockages at Alexander's Lock have increased only 33 per cent, the tons arriving have increased 200 per cent. And that though the tons arriving from the Erie Canal last year are 77,000 more than in 1847, the lockages are 3,600 less.

THE PHILOSOPHICAL RAILROAD ENGINEER.

George Stanford, an engineer on the Michigan Central Railroad, at the time of a late accident on that road, had his head cut badly and his back bruised. Before the collision took place, but when it was too late to obviate it, he exclaimed: "This is all carelessness, and if I am killed, it will serve me right—I will not jump off." That engineer was an honest man, and an intelligent believer in that beautiful Providence that works no miracle to save men from the consequences of transgressing wise laws.

MAINE LAW CONCERNING RAILROADS.

The following act concerning railroads passed by the Legislature of Maine, was approved by the Governor on the 18th of April, 1852, and takes effect from and after October 18th, 1852.

AN ACT CONCERNING RAILROADS.

SEC. 1. It is hereby declared that no railroad company has or shall have the right to assign its charter or any of its privileges, immunities or franchises, without the express authority of the legislature therefor; nor shall any railroad company, without such express authority, lease its road or any portion thereof, or grant the use and enjoyment thereof or any portion of the same, to any other person or corporation, or in any way grant the use, possession or control of the same to any other party or corporation, or in any way place the control and management of the said road in the hands of any other officers or parties than those contemplated by the charter. And any such lease, contract, agreement, assignment or transfer, heretofore or hereafter made, is hereby declared to be null and of no effect; and it shall be the duty of the Attorney General, on suggestion or request of any person complaining of a violation of the provisions of this act, by any such corporation, to file an information, in the nature of a quo warranto, against said corporation before the Supreme Judical Court; and said court is authorized to pass such judgment, order, or decree, as to justice and equity may appertain in all such cases. *And provided*, that nothing in this act shall extend to any agreement for the lease of the Somerset and Kennebec Railroad to the Kennebec and Portland Railroad, on the terms mutually agreed on by the stockholders in both of said companies; nor to effect any mortgage made for securing the debts of any corporation, or with any portion of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railroad which lies within the States of New Hampshire and Vermont.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect in six months from and after its approval by the Governor.

A PROFITABLE RAILROAD IN GEORGIA.

The last report of the Georgia Railroad Company gives the same encouraging assurance of the value of the railway system, that all their previous reports have done.

Their road is 171 miles long, with 48 miles of branches, and they declare dividends on a capital stock of $4,000,000. They also have a debt, created by subscriptions to other railroad companies. These subscriptions amount to $570,890, and consist of the stocks of the Georgia and East Tennessee, Nashville and Chattanooga, Montgomery and West Point, Atlanta and Lagrange, and Rome Railroad Companies, and the Augusta and Nashville Telegraph Company. After paying interest on these debts, $52,691 55, the net profit remaining was $481,087 93, or 10.78 per cent on the capital. The company paid a dividend of 7 per cent, and devoted $151,087 93 to the payment of the debts. It is evident that without this debt created to aid other works calculated to benefit their road, the company might have declared a dividend of nearly 18 per cent. In fact, the business of this road has exhibited an actual profit of about 18 per cent for years past. The company have pursued the policy of subscribing to the stock of other roads, leading from their road to the interior. The debt created by these subscriptions will be paid off out of the profits of their road, in less than four years, and the company will enjoy largely increased profits, while their markets will command the tribute of Alabama and Tennessee.

THE FIRST AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE.

The Charleston *Mercury* says the first locomotive built in this country was constructed for and used on the South Carolina railroad.

"This engine would be a curiosity if placed alongside of one of Norris's or Baldwin's last improvements. It was named the 'Best Friend,' and was built under the direction of Mr. E. L. Miller, of Walterboro', at the West Point Foundry of Messrs. Kemble, New York. The engine had no tender, but carried its own wood and water. The wheels were of wood, with spokes like a wagon, and the wheel armed with a wrought-iron tire.

"The engineer who ran the first locomotive that was used on this or any other road in the United States, was N. K. Darrell, an apprentice brought up in Dotterer's Machine shop. He is now, and has been for many years past, the well-known and efficient master of the company's workshops in Charleston.

"After a few trips, the wooden wheels of the 'Best Friend' gave way, and were replaced by cast iron ones, the pattern for which was made, and the wheels cast by another of Dotterer's apprentice boys, J. D. Petsch, then the foreman of that well known establishment. These, it is believed, were the first cast-iron wheels used on railroads in this country.

"The 'Best Friend' blew up after a brief career, and from its wreck another engine was built by Mr. Petsch, at the company's workshop, of which he was then in charge. It was called the "Phenix." Previous to this the crank axle had been used; but in the reconstruction of this engine, Mr. Petsch introduced the straight axle with outside connections, and also wrought iron tires on the cast-iron driving wheels, neither of which, it is believed, had before been tried in this country. Mr. Petsch is now the able and efficient superintendent of the motive-power and transportation department of the South Carolina railroad, in which important position he has rendered valuable service, by the many improvements he has embodied in the plan and construction of locomotives, machinery, workshops, etc."

HAMILTON, EATON, AND RICHMOND RAILROAD.

From a recent statement of the president of this company, it appears that the cost of the road from Hamilton to Richmond, Ind., 44 miles, including water and other stations, will be $713,103 35, of which the sum of $532,767 has been provided, requiring only $280,335 35 to finish the whole line. The estimate of the work remaining to be done is $178,548 11. The road is to be finished as a first class road in every respect, and will open a great thoroughfare into Indiana. Arrangements have been made with the Cincinnati and Hamilton Company to run the road as soon as ready; and it is supposed cars will run out some distance to Eaton, the middle of the present month, (June, 1852,) and to Richmond in the fall of 1852.

THE RIGHT OF WAY OVER LAND BELONGING TO THE STATE.

Judge Hurd, of the Supreme Court of Ohio, has decided that the State of Ohio, by granting a charter for a railroad from Columbus to Zanesville, very clearly granted the right of way over the canal, which, of necessity, must be crossed in making the road. The judge held that if the legislature had the power to grant the right of way for a railroad over the lands of private individuals who derived their title from the United States government, they had the power to grant the same right of way over the land belonging to the State. It will be recollected that the Board of Public Works of Ohio enjoined this road from proceeding with the work on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the charter which authorized it to cross the canal.

VALIDITY OF A PATENT FOR IMPROVEMENT IN CARS.

An action was recently brought before the United States District Court (Judge Kane) by Ross Winans *vs.* the York and Maryland Railroad Company, to recover damages for the infraction of a patent granted to the plaintiff for an improvement in the construction of cars, rendering them better adapted to American railroads.—The object of the invention is, among other things, to make such an adjustment of the wheels, axles, and connection with the body as shall cause the car to pursue a more smooth, even and safe course, than it does as they are ordinarily constructed. It was proved to be indispensable to comfort and safety at the speed now run by passenger trains. The jury brought in a verdict for $5,400 damages and costs.

PROFITABLE RAILROAD STOCKS.

The Utica and Schenectady Railroad Company have probably done the most profitable business of any railroad corporation in the world. This road, seventy-eight miles in length, was constructed and put into operation for a million and a half of dollars. The total receipts in about fourteen years have been $6,856,046. Expenditures for the same period, $2,637,842. Excess of earnings over current expenses during that time, $4,218,204—reimbursing the whole cost of the road and yielding a clear net profit of $2,718,204 or over 18½ per cent per annum.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND COSTA RICA.

The following is a correct copy of the "*Treaty of Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation between the United States of America and the Republic of Costa Rica,*" concluded and signed in the city of Washington on the 10th of July, 1851, and duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications exchanged at Washington on the 26th day of May, 1852:—

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE, AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICA.

In the name of the Most Holy Trinity:—Commercial intercourse having been for some time established between the United States and the Republic of Costa Rica, it seems good for the security as well as the encouragement of such commercial intercourse, and for the maintenance of good understanding between the United States and the said republic, that the relations now subsisting between them should be regularly acknowledged and confirmed by the signature of a treaty of amity, Commerce, and navigation.

For this purpose they have named their respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

The President of the United States, Daniel Webster, Secretary of State;

And his Excellency the President of the Republic of Costa Rica, Senor Don Felipe Molina, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of that republic to the United States;

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in due and proper form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:—

ART. 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the United States and their citizens, on the one part, and the government of the Republic of Costa Rica and its citizens on the other.

ART. 2. There shall be, between all the territories of the United States and the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica, a reciprocal freedom of Commerce. The subjects and citizens of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are or may be permitted to come; to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part thereof respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their Commerce; and generally the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their Commerce, subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

In like manner the respective ships of war and post-office packets of the two countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbors, rivers, and places to which foreign ships of war and packets are or may be permitted to come; to enter into the same to anchor there and refit; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers mentioned in this article, the privilege of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood; in which trade national vessels only of the country where the trade is carried on are permitted to engage.

ART. 3. It being the intention of the two high contracting parties to bind themselves, by the preceding articles, to treat each other on the footing of the most favored nation, it is hereby agreed between them that any favor, privilege, or immunity whatever, in matters of Commerce and navigation, which either contracting party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant to the subjects or citizens of any other State, shall be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other high contracting party gratuitously, if the concession in favor of that other nation shall have been gratuitous; or in return for a compensation, as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement, if the concession shall have been *conditional.*

ART. 4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of the United States of any article being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed

on the importation into the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, than are or shall be payable on the like articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed in the territories of either of the high contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, or of the Republic of Costa Rica, to or from the said territories of the United States, or to or from the Republic of Costa Rica, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. 5. No higher or other duties of payment, on account of tonnage of light or harbor dues, of pilotage, of salvage in case either of damage or shipwreck, or on account of any other local charges, shall be imposed in any of the ports of the Republic of Costa Rica, on vessels of the United States, than those payable in the same ports by Costa Rican vessels; nor in any of the ports of the United States on Costa Rican vessels, than shall be payable in the same ports on vessels of the United States.

ART. 6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica of any article being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, whether such importation shall be made in Costa Rican or in vessels of the United States; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of the United States of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica, whether such importation shall be made in United States or Costa Rican vessels.

The same dues shall be made, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to the Republic of Costa Rica of any articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the United States, whether such exportations shall be made in Costa Rican or in United States vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Costa Rica to the territories of the United States, whether such exportation shall be made in United States or in Costa Rican vessels.

ART. 7. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, citizens of the United States, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of the Republic of Costa Rica, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other persons in those capacities than those employed by Costa Ricans, nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid in like cases by Costa Rican citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed in all cases to the buyer and seller to bargain and fix the price of any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into or exported from the Republic of Costa Rica as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the territories of the United States by the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica under the same conditions.

The citizens of the high contracting parties shall reciprocally receive and enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries respectively, for the prosecution and defense of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ in all cases the advocates, attorneys, or agent of whatever description, whom they may think proper, and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

ART. 8. In whatever relates to the police of the ports, the lading and unlading ships, the safety of the merchandise, goods, and effects, the succession to personal estates by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, exchange, testament, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the citizens of the two high contracting parties shall reciprocally enjoy the same privileges, liberties, and rights as native citizens, and they shall not be charged in any of these respects with any higher imposts or duties than those which are paid or may be paid by native citizens; submitting, of course, to the local laws and regulations of each country respectively.

If any citizen of the two high contracting parties shall die without will or testament in any of the territories of the other, the consul general or consul of the nation to which the deceased belonged, or the representative of such consul general or consul in his absence, shall have the right to nominate curators to take charge of the

property of the deceased, so far as the laws of the country will permit, for the benefit of the lawful heirs and creditors of the deceased, giving proper notice of such nomination to the authorities of the country.

ART. 9. The citizens of the United States residing in the Republic of Costa Rica, and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica residing in the United States, shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, either by sea or by land, and from all forced loans or military exactions or requisitions; and they shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay other ordinary charges, requisitions, or taxes, greater than those that are paid by native citizens of the contracting parties respectively.

ART. 10. It shall be free for each of the two high contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in any of the territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the high contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as they judge fit to be excepted. The Costa Rican diplomatic agents and consuls shall enjoy in the territories of the United States whatever privileges, exemptions, and immunities are or shall be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favored nation; and in like manner the diplomatic agents and consuls of the United States in the Costa Rican territories, shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exemption, and immunities are or may be granted in the Republic of Costa Rica, to the diplomatic agents and consuls of the most favored nation.

ART. 11. For the better security of Commerce between the citizens of the United States and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica, it is agreed that, if at any time any interruption of friendly intercourse, or any rupture should unfortunately take place between the two high contracting parties, the citizens of either of the two high contracting parties, who may be within any of the territories of the other, shall, if residing upon the coast, be allowed six months, and if in the interior, a whole year to wind up their accounts and dispose of their property; and a safe conduct shall be given them to embark at the port which they themselves may select; and even in the event of a rupture, all such citizens of either of the two high contracting parties, who are established in any of the territories of the other, in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and of continuing such trade and employment therein without any manner of interruption, in the full enjoyment of their liberty and property as long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offense against the laws; and their goods and effects of whatever description they may be, whether in their own custody or intrusted to individuals or to the State, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, nor to any other charges or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native citizens of the country in which such citizens may reside. In the same case debts between individuals, property in public funds, and shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, nor detained.

ART. 12. The citizens of the United States and the citizens of the Republic of Costa Rica respectively, residing in any of the territories of the other party, shall enjoy in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government, and shall continue in possession of the guaranties which they now enjoy. They shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed in any manner on account of their religious belief, nor in the proper exercise of their religion, either within their own private houses, or in the places of worship destined for that purpose, agreeably to the system of tolerance established in the territories of the two high contracting parties; provided they respect the religion of the nation in which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the country. Liberty shall also be granted to bury the citizens of either of the two high contracting parties who may die in the territories aforesaid, in burial places of their own, which in the same manner shall be freely established and maintained; nor shall the funerals or sepulchers of the dead be disturbed in any way or upon any account.

ART. 13. In order that the two high contracting parties may have the opportunity of hereafter treating and agreeing upon such other arrangements as may tend still further to the improvement of their mutual intercourse, and to the advancement of the interests of their respective citizens, it is agreed that at any time after the expiration of seven years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, either of the high contracting parties shall have the right of giving to the other party notice of its intention to terminate articles 4, 5, and 6 of the present treaty; and that, at the expiration of twelve months after such notice shall have

been received by either party from the other, the said articles, and all the stipulations contained therein, shall cease to be binding on the two high contracting parties.

ART. 14. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington or at San José de Costa Rica within the space of one year, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at Washington this tenth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one.

DANIEL WEBSTER. [L. S.]
F. MOLINA. [L. S.]

RECIPROCAL TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

The following act proposing a reciprocal trade between the Hawaiian Islands and the United States, has been officially published in the *Polynesian*, the organ of that government. It only remains for the congress of the United States, in order to secure a free import into the Hawaiian Islands, of flour, fish, coal, lumber, staves and heading, the produce or manufacture of the United States, to pass an act admitting the sugar, syrup, molasses, and coffee of the Hawaiian Islands into all the ports of the United States.

AN ACT PROVIDING FOR RECIPROCAL DUTIES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

Be it enacted by the King, the Premier, and Chiefs of the Hawaiian Islands, in council assembled:—

SEC. 1. All flour, fish, coal, lumber, stave and heading, the produce or manufacture of the United States, shall be admitted into this kingdom free of all duty, provided the government of the United States will admit the sugar, syrup, molasses and coffee, the produce of the Hawaiian Islands, into all the ports of the United States on the same terms.

SEC. 2. The evidence that articles proposed to be admitted into the ports of this kingdom under the preceding section, are the produce or manufacture of the United States, shall be a certificate to that effect from the Hawaiian consul of the port from which such articles are imported, or in case there shall be no such consul resident in such a port, a certificate to that effect from the collector of the port.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect the day it is concurred in by the government of the United States, and continue in force until annulled by the government of the Hawaiian Islands, or of the United States. Provided always, that previous to such annulment, the government desiring to make the same, shall give twelve months notice of their intention so to do.

Done at the Palace in Honolulu this first day of March, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two.

KAMEHAMEHA.
KEONIANA.

OF THE RELIEF OF SICK AND DISABLED SEAMEN.

TO COLLECTORS OF CUSTOMS AND OTHER OFFICERS ACTING AS AGENTS UNDER THE ACTS FOR THE RELIEF OF SICK AND DISABLED SEAMEN AND BOATMEN.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 11, 1852.

With the view of bringing together into one circular all existing regulations, and prescribing for your government such additional instructions as the enlargement of the fund and the increased demands upon it seem to require, the following regulations have been adopted by the department, viz:—

1st. Hospital relief is to be confined to American seamen and such foreign seamen as have served for three consecutive years on board American vessels, and to boatmen who are liable to pay hospital money.

2d. The agent of the fund is the only person authorized to admit patients to its benefits, and in all cases he will furnish the applicant with a written order of admission after being fully satisfied of his right to relief; and where provision is made by contract with a private institution, or an individual, these orders must be produced as vouchers in all settlements under such contracts.

3d. Seamen or boatmen deemed incurable, or those employed in the fisheries, are not entitled to the benefits of the marine hospital fund.

4th. The period of hospital relief is restricted to four months, and is not to be extended for a longer time, except by the special authority of the department.

At all ports, except those on the Pacific, where no hospitals have been provided by the government, the following limitation and rules will be observed:—

In ports north of Newbern, North Carolina, there will be allowed for suitable boarding, lodging, and nursing, the sum of three dollars per week for each patient, and in those south of that place three dollars and fifty cents per week for each patient.

Medicines will be paid for at the usual apothecary rates, but in no case shall the cost of them exceed ten cents per day for each patient.

Professional services to each patient at the rate of twenty-five cents per day, not in any case to exceed six dollars and twenty-five cents for any one patient, and applicable only to not exceeding ten patients. For all patients above ten, the maximum aggregate charge not to exceed three dollars, at the rate of twenty-five cents per day up to that sum.

No charges for medical and surgical services will be paid until the patient is discharged, and in all cases the accounts rendered for those services must show the number and names of the patients, the number of days, attention to each, and a specification of their diseases.

Whenever seamen or boatmen shall abandon their profession, and enter upon other employments, they will not be entitled to hospital relief during the continuance of such other avocation; and in no case where disease has been contracted during such abandonment, and while engaged in other pursuits, will relief be extended.

At all ports on the Pacific, the cost of boarding, lodging, nursing, medicines, medical and surgical aid, and all other attentions and care of marine hospital patients, will be specially regulated, from time to time, at each port by the Department upon a full statement of facts and circumstances connected with the care and medical treatment of them.

THOMAS CORWIN, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND SARDINIA.

The following are the chief points of the new treaty of Commerce concluded between France and Sardinia. It is another step in advance of free trade principles.

1. The abolition, by Sardinia, of all export duty on raw spun silks, also on skins of kids and lambs. 2. The abolition, by the two countries, of import duties on the same articles. 3. The reduction, by Piedmont, to a uniform duty of 3f. 30c., the hectolitre instead of 10f., and 14f. on all sorts of wines; of 10f. instead of 30f. on brandies of the first quality; of 5f. 50c. instead of 18f. on common brandies, and 10c. instead of 30c. on every bottle of wine, brandy, liquor, or vinegar containing less than a litre. 4. The reduction, by France, to 15f. instead of 20f. the 100 kilogrammes of the duties on Sardinian oils. 5. The admission, by France, at a reduced duty of 3f. of 12,000 kilogrammes per annum of the steeled cast iron of Savoy. 6. The reduction, by France, of one-half of the existing duties on the Cheeses of Savoy, and some facilities for the importation of cattle from that province.

Letters from Genoa state that trade has revived wonderfully in the city since the treaty of Commerce with France came into operation on the 14th February last. The improvement has given rise to a project for converting the Darsena into docks, at a cost of f.18,000,000.

The Sauli Palace, one of the finest specimens of Genoese architecture, is to be demolished to make room for improvement. A French company has bought it for that purpose, to the great wrath of the citizens.

TO REGULATE THE SALE OF OATS IN MAINE.

The following "act to regulate the sale of oats," was passed at the last session of the Maine Legislature, and approved by the Governor, February 14th, 1852.

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF OATS.

From and after the passage of this act, all oats offered for sale in this State, shall be sold by strike measure, or thirty pounds per bushel, and whenever any oats shall hereafter be offered for sale, and either the seller or buyer shall require it, said oats shall be sold by the aforesaid weight.

THE LAW OF MARYLAND REGULATING PILOTAGE.

We publish below a copy of the new Pilot Law of Maryland, which passed the Legislature of that State in April, 1852:—

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland*, That J. Smith Hollins, William Graham, Samuel T. Thompson, and John Haynie, or any three or more of them, be and they are hereby appointed a board to examine any person who shall desire to be admitted a pilot, he first producing a certificate from the Circuit Court of the county where he resides, or from the Court of Common Pleas of the city of Baltimore, in case he resides in said city, of his honesty and good behavior, and paying to the said board the sum of five dollars, and to the register of the board seventy-five cents, and if upon public examination the person shall appear to the board of sufficient ability, skill, and experience, they shall grant him one of three kinds of warrants of appointment and license, according to the qualification of such person, thereby authorizing such person for one year from the date of such warrant, either to pilot vessels of any draft of water, or vessels not exceeding twelve feet draft, or vessels not exceeding nine feet draft; and every person receiving a warrant of appointment and license agreeably to this act, shall thereafter be reputed a lawful pilot; but no person shall be entitled to receive a warrant as aforesaid, as a first rate pilot, unless he hath employed himself at least three years in the business of piloting vessels of any draft, or unless he shall have served at least five years as an apprentice to the business of piloting; and every pilot shall receive his warrant of license every year in the month of April or May, and that no warrant shall be granted at any other time, or renew license applied for, unless the pilot had been carried to sea, or confined by sickness so as to prevent his application within that period; and every first-rate pilot shall pay two dollars, and every second-rate pilot shall pay one dollar and fifty cents, and every third-rate pilot shall pay one dollar, to the register of the board, and the board may renew any license or not, as they may think proper.

SEC. 2. *And be it enacted*, That every member of the said board, before he proceeds to examine any person applying for a warrant as pilot under this act, shall take the following oath of affirmation, to be administered by a Justice of the Peace, to wit:—"I, ————, do swear (or solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm) that I will impartially examine and inquire into the capacity, skill, and experience of any applicant or applicants in the art of piloting in the Chesapeake Bay, and the rivers thereof, and will admit them as I find them qualified, or reject them if I shall find them unqualified, without favor, affection, or reward."

SEC. 3. *And be it enacted*, That the said board may make and use a common seal, and alter and renew the same at their pleasure, and may appoint a register, who shall enter in a book to be provided for that purpose, all applications to and other proceedings of the said board, and the register shall countersign all warrants for pilots granted by the board, and every such warrant shall be under the seal of the said board.

SEC. 4. *And be it enacted*, That it shall not be lawful for any person to act as a pilot, notwithstanding his having obtained a warrant as aforesaid, unless he, or the company to which he belongs, shall keep one sufficient boat, of twenty-six feet keel, straight rabbit at least, and decked and well found, under the penalty of one hundred and fifty dollars for every vessel such person shall undertake to pilot; and the name of every boat, and the place she belongs to, shall be put on her stern, and on her mainsail and on her foresail, in large letters.

SEC. 5. *And be it enacted*, That if any person, not having a warrant as a pilot agreeable to this act, shall presume to take upon himself to conduct or pilot any vessel bound from any port in this State to sea, or coming from sea, and bound up any river of this State, to any port thereof, every such person shall forfeit one hundred and fifty dollars, and such person shall also be liable for all damages occasioned by his undertaking to conduct or pilot any vessel, by action at common law: *Provided*, that this prohibition shall not extend to prevent any person from assisting any vessel in distress, if such person shall deliver up such vessel to any pilot who shall come on board and offer to conduct or pilot such vessel, and he shall pay such person one-half the fees received by him for the pilotage of such vessel; *and provided*, that this prohibition shall not extend to prevent any master or owner of any vessel from piloting or conducting any vessel of which he may be master or owner.

SEC. 6. *And be it enacted*, That the said board of examiners may make such rules and orders for the government and regulation of pilots appointed and licensed by them as they may think proper, not contrary to the provisions of this act; and the said board may, by their order, deprive any of the said pilots of their license, or suspend

them for a limited time, for breaking such rules or orders, or omitting anything required by the same, or for acting in any manner contrary thereto; and if any of the said pilots so suspended or deprived, during the time of their suspension or deprivation, shall take upon himself to pilot or conduct any vessel, such pilot shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars for every such offense.

SEC. 7. *And be it enacted*, That if any of the said board of examiners shall die, resign, refuse to act, or remove from the city of Baltimore, or be otherwise rendered incapable to act, the remaining examiners, or a majority of them, shall fill up such vacancy, provided they shall so regulate their appointments as to have at least one member of the board a person skilled in the business of piloting.

SEC. 8. *And be it enacted*, That all persons now holding license to act as pilots in the waters of this State may renew the same according to the provisions of this act, as if the several acts of Assembly relating to pilots and pilotage, heretofore passed were still in force.

SEC. 9. *And be it enacted*, That any pilot who may be licensed to act as such agreeably to the provisions of this act, may charge and recover for his services, such reasonable compensation as may be contracted for by such pilot, and the owner, master, agent, or consignee of any vessel which may be piloted by him.

SEC. 10. *And be it enacted*, That the act passed at November Session, 1803, chapter 63, entitled "an act to establish pilots and regulate their fees," and all the acts supplementary thereto, relating to pilots and pilotage, are hereby repealed, provided that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to compel any master, owner, or agent to pay any pilot except he be employed as pilot.

REDUCTION OF ANCHORAGE DUTIES BY BRAZIL.

The following translation of a decree of his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, interesting to those concerned in the trade to that country, has been officially communicated to the Department of State, at Washington.

DECREE NO. 928, of MARCH 5, 1852.

Pursuant to the provisions of the 28th article of the law No. 369, of September 18, 1845, I think it proper to decree:—

ARTICLE 1. From and after 1st July, 1852, the anchorage duty upon vessels trading between foreign ports and the ports of the empire will be reduced to three hundred reis the ton; and the same class of duty now levied upon coasting vessels shall be abolished.

ART. 2. That part of the provisions of April 26, July 20, and November 15, 1844, which has not been altered by this decree, will continue in force.

Joaquim Jose Rodrigues Torres, of my Council, a Senator of the Empire, Minister and Secretary of State for Financial Affairs, and President of the National Exchequer Court, will so understand the above, and cause it to be executed.

Palace of Rio Janeiro, March 5, 1852, the thirty-first of the independence of the Empire.

By his Majesty the Emperor. JOAQUIM JOSE RODRIGUES TORRES.

ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF COTTON IN ALABAMA.

The following Act passed at the last Session of the Legislature of Alabama, and approved February 10th, 1852, is now in force:—

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF COTTON BY COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted, &c., That from and after the passage of this act, all cotton sold by commission merchants to brokers or buyers shall not be considered as delivered and the ownership given up, until the same is fully paid for; any order for the cotton, law, custom or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That any cotton broker engaged in the business of buying cotton, either on his or their own account, or for others, who shall buy or engage to buy, cotton from a planter or commission merchant and shall fail or refuse to pay for the same at the time agreed to, and shall make way with, or dispose of any cotton purchased and not paid for, shall be deemed guilty of fraud and embezzlement, and shall be liable to be imprisoned, on conviction, in the penitentiary not less than one nor more than five years, at the discretion of jury trying the case.

BRITISH COMMERCIAL AND NAVIGATION TREATIES.

The Gazette of London gives the following list of potentates &c., with whom commercial treaties have been made by Great Britain.

The Emperor of Austria, the King of the Belgians, the Republic of Bolivia, the City of Bremen, the Republic of Costa Rica, the King of Denmark, the Dominican Republic, the Republic of the Equator, the French Republic, the City of Frankfort, the King of Greece, Republic of Guatemala, the City of Hamburg, the King of Hanover, the Republic of Liberia, the City of Lubeck, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the Mexican Republic, the King of the Netherlands, the Republic of New Grenada, the Grand Duke of Oldenburg, the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, the Republic of Peru, the Queen of Portugal, the King of Prussia and the other States forming the German Commercial Union, viz:—Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemburg, Baden, the Electorate of Hesse, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, the States forming the Customs and Commercial Union of Thuringia, Nassau, and Frankfort; the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, the Emperor of Russia, the King of Sardinia, the King of the Two Sicilies, the King of Sweden and Norway, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, the United States of America, the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, the Republic of Venezuela.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

OF LIGHT VESSELS AS A GUIDE TO MARINERS.

The following notice to mariners, dated Trinity-house, London, 6th January, 1852, has been received for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*, from an official source:

Notice is hereby given that this corporation has issued directions to the masters and mates of their several Light Vessels to the following effect, namely:—

In the event of any Light Vessel being driven from her station, the master or mate, whichever be in charge, is carefully to consider whether she has driven to such a distance, or in such a direction, as to make it dangerous to shipping to continue to show her lights, and if the distance or direction be not such as to endanger the safety of vessels running on their course, the *Lights and Balls* are to be continued in the usual manner. But should the Light Vessel have driven so as to be of no use as a guide to shipping, the *usual Lights and Balls* are, in that case, to be *discontinued*, and *two Red Lights substituted*, one at the end of the davit forward, the other on a stanchion beside the ensign staff; and a *Red Flare Light* shown every quarter of an hour during the night.

And further, when vessels are observed from a Light Vessel to be in distress, or to require assistance:—

If in the day time, two guns are to be fired on board such Light Vessel, each at an interval of five minutes, and repeated every half-hour until assistance be observed approaching. *If in the night time*, two guns are to be fired on board such Light Vessel, at similar intervals, each followed by a white rocket thrown in the direction of the vessel in distress, and these signals are to be continued until the required assistance has been rendered.

Masters of vessels, pilots, and other persons are earnestly requested to take such necessary note of these regulations as may be useful both for the avoidance of danger to themselves, and for aiding their endeavors to render assistance to others.

By order J. HERBERT, *Secretary.*

FIXED LIGHT IN THE STRAIT OF SUNDA.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, April 19th, 1852.

Her Majesty's Government has been officially informed that on the 28th of last November, a Fixed Light was established by the Netherland Government, on Fourth Point, in the Strait of Sunda. The Tower, which is built of stone, stands on the sea beach nearly 3 miles from Anjer, in 6° 4′ 50″ south, and in 105° 56′ 35″ east of Greenwich. The Light is displayed at an elevation of 94 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen in all directions from the deck of a vessel at the distance of 16 miles.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON THE SOUTH POINT OF BARBADOS.

We are indebted to the Department of State at Washington, for the subjoined official notice to mariners, touching the revolving light on the South Point of Barbados.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALITY, *March* 24, 1852.

Notice is hereby given, that her majesty's government has established a revolving light on the South Point of the Island of Barbados; and that it was to be displayed on the first of this month.

The base of the tower is 55 feet above the sea, from which it is 200 yards distant, and stands in latitude 13° 2′ 45″ N., and longitude 59° 33′ 30″ W. of Greenwich. The tower is 90 feet high, and is painted in alternate red and white bands, each being 7½ feet in depth.

The light is thus 145 feet above the level of the sea, and revolves once in every minute; after an eclipse of 14 seconds it again appears, gradually increases for 24 seconds to its greatest brilliancy, and then in 24 seconds more is eclipsed.

From the light, Seawell Point bears about N. E. by E. ½ E., and Needham Point W. N. W. ½ W.; and except from between the opposite bearings the light is visible in all directions from the deck of a vessel within the distance of 18 miles.

Vessels approaching the island from the eastward are recommended not to run down their longitude to the northward of 12° 55′ N.; and as soon as the light is discovered to bring it to bear west, steering from thence W. by S. and not passing it at a less distance than 2 miles.

If coming from the north eastward the light will not be visible until it bears to the westward of S. W. by W., being concealed by the high land forming Seawell Point; and if kept in sight well open of that point, it will lead clear of the Cobblers, a group of dangerous reefs which extend some miles from the eastern side of the island. Mariners are advised to give them a wide berth, on account of the prevailing current to the westward.

When the light is brought to bear N. E. a course may be shaped for Needham Point; but in hauling up into Carlisle Bay, that point should be kept at the distance of a third of a mile.

THE SOUTHERN COAST OF FLORIDA.

The Superintendent of the United States Coast-Survey has communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury, under date, Coast-Survey Office, Washington, May 11, 1852, the subjoined information, compiled from official records of the last survey, respecting the Southern Coast of Florida, which are placed on record in this department of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the benefit of navigators:—

A series of signals (fifteen in number) have been erected by one of the Triangulation parties of the Coast-Survey along the line of the reef, indicating dangerous points, and so distributed that vessels may in safety make the intermediate run between any two of them. Navigators will find them highly useful. They are sufficiently remarkable always to secure attention in the day-time, and may be seen some two or three miles with the naked eye, or from six to ten with ordinary glass. Each signal consists of a mangrove pole from thirty to forty feet high, fixed in an iron screw pile, which has been sunk in the solid material of the reef, and surmounted by a barrel painted black. It is stated that with these guides there can be no difficulty in the way of steamers keeping close in and running in smooth water. The *Isabel* (Charleston, Key West, and Havana packet,) always hugs the reef close, to avoid the easterly current, and take advantage of the eddy setting westward.

The following list shows the reefs upon which signals have been placed as described:—

1. Fowey Rocks. 2. Triumph Reef. 3. Long Reef. 4. A shoal, (coral formation,) without a name, interior to Triumph and Long reefs, described as extending from Cesar's creek, about seven miles northward, and lying midway between the line of Keys and main Florida reef. The waters inside the reef are here divided by these shoals into two main and well-defined channels; the outside being the deepest, and the inside of sufficient depth for vessels drawing less than ten feet. Small vessels may pick their way through in various directions; but these are believed to be the only well-marked channels. The screw-pile has been placed at the northern extremity of the shoals. 5. Ajax Reef. 6. Pacific Reef. 7. Turtle Reef. 8. Triangle Reef or

Grecian Shoals. 9. French Reef. 10. Pickle Reef. 11. Conch Reef. 12. Crocus Reef. 13. Alligator Reef. 14. The Washerwoman Shoal. 15. The American Shoals, near Key West.

One of the most experienced navigators of this coast, Captain Rollins, of the *Isabel*, who passes along the reef four times monthly, has already appreciated and handsomely acknowledged the aid of these signals.

The points have been designated, and the erection of the signals directed by Lieutenant James Totten, United States Army, assistant in the Coast-Survey.

ELECTRICITY APPLIED TO THE CAPTURE OF THE WHALE.

The *New Bedford Mercury* gives an account of some interesting experiments, illustrating the effect of electricity to facilitate the capture of the whale. The most prominent features of this new method are thus described:—

"Every whale at the moment of being struck with the harpoon is rendered powerless, as by stroke of lightning, and therefore his subsequent escape or loss, except by sinking, is wholly impracticable; and the process of lancing and securing him, is entirely unattended with danger. The arduous labor involved in a long chase in the capture of the whale, is suspended, and consequently the inconvenience and danger of the boats loosing sight of or becoming separated from the ship, is avoided. One or two boats only would be required to be lowered at a time, and therefore a less number both of officers and seamen than heretofore employed, would be ample for the purposes of the voyage.

"The electricity is conveyed to the body of the whale from an electric galvanic battery contained in the boat, by means of a metallic wire attached to the harpoon, and so arranged as to reconduct the electro-current from the whale through the sea to the machine. The machine itself is simple and compact in construction, inclosed in a strong chest weighing about 350 pounds, and occupying a space in the boat of about three and a half feet long by two in width, and the same in hight. It is capable of throwing into the body of the whale eight tremendous strokes of electricity in a second, or 950 strokes in a minute, paralyzing in an instant the muscles of the whale, and depriving it of all power of motion, if not actually of life."

SEAMEN'S WAGES AT SAN FRANCISCO.

Pondicherry, by the run	$140
Sandwich Islands, by the run	45
Batavia, China, and back, by the month	35
Oregon, Humbolt, and back, by the month	40
San Diego and South, and back, by the month	40
Batavia, by the run	140
China, by the run	130
Manilla, by the run	130
East Indies, New York, and Boston, by the month	35
Calcutta, by the run	150
United States *via* Cape Horn, by the month	40
Valparaiso and Callao, there discharged, by the month	45
Harbor, by the month	50 to 60

STETTIN AND SWIENEMUNDE.

STETTIN, 10th April, 1852.

Pursuant to a new regulation of the Prussian Government, dated 2d of March, all ships bound for Stettin can be cleared at Swienemunde on and after the 1st of May, under sail, and without any detention, if provided with a double set of manifests, containing as follows:—

Ship Number of bills of Lading.	Name of Consignee.	*Captain* Number of Packages.	Mark and Number.	*from* Description of Goods.	Gross Weight or Measure.

STATISTICS OF THE POPULATION OF HUNGARY.

Dr. SCHUTTES, in his *Ungarn*, puts down the population of Hungary in 1850 at about 15,000,000; of which 5,278,665 are Magyars; about 5,000,000 Sclavacs, Croats, Ruthen, Raizen, and Schokazen; Wallachs 2,908,876; Germans 1,377,484, and smaller tribes about 400,000. The entire population of Hungary in 1842, according to Fenyes, was 12,880,406. Fenyes is a Hungarian, and the most reliable statistician who has ever written on Hungary. Haeunfler, an Austrian statistician, puts down the population in 1842 at 13,876,170.

CIRCULATION OF THE LONDON PRESS.

The returns of the English stamp office, published in the London *Times* of the 1st inst., give some extraordinary statistics relative to the London newspaper press. By these returns it appears that the circulation of the *Times* exceeds by over four-and-a-half millions of copies, the aggregate circulation of all the other London newspapers put together. Here is a full comparative list:—

CIRCULATION OF LONDON PAPERS.

MORNING.

	1845.	1848.	1849.	1850.
Times	8,100,000	11,021,500	11,300,000	11,900,000
Advertiser	1,440,000	1,538,997	1,528,220	1,549,145
Daily News	.....	3,053,638	1,357,000	1,152,000
Herald	2,018,025	1,335,000	1,147,000	1,139,000
Chronicle	1,554,000	1,151,304	937,500	912,547
Post	1,002,400	964,500	905,000	829,000

EVENING.

Sun	1,098,500	893,312	873,000	834,500
Express	.....	888,018	964,000	776,950
Globe	852,000	720,000	630,000	585,000
Standard	846,000	652,500	539,000	492,000

The circulation of the whole of these papers, exclusive of the *Times*, in 1850, (tested by the number of stamps issued at the stamp office) was not quite seven-and-a-half millions, while the number of stamps paid for by the *Times* was precisely 11,900,000, thus exhibiting the fact of the *Times* possessing a positive average circulation of over 38,000 copies per diem. As the *Times* has no free list, and sells only for cash, this result is the more surprising. It is understood that the circulation in 1852 is over 40,000 copies a day. By the returns alluded to, it appears that while the *Times* has been gaining ground for the past seven years, all other newspapers, both morning and evening, have been rapidly sinking. In 1845 the *Times* circulated 8,100,000 papers, and all the other journals upwards of 9,000,000; but in 1850 the circulation of all the other papers had fallen to under seven-and-a half millions, while that of the *Times* has risen to nearly 12,000,000, and is constantly augmenting. It is, in fact, conceded that most of the London morning newspapers are published at a loss, while the profits of the *Times* are known to exceed $500,000 a year. The *Times* pays for stamp advertisements and excise duty, about $500,000 a year to the government.

The daily circulation of the London papers is now about as follows:—

Times	40,000
Morning Advertiser	5,000
Daily News	3,000
Morning Herald	3,000
Morning Chronicle	2,900
Morning Post	2,800

Most of the papers are falling off in their circulation yearly, and the evening journals are in a still worse position.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

COPPER MINING OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

We give below a table of the several mining companies of Lake Superior, showing the capital, number of hands employed, and value of products, &c., &c.:—

Names of Lake Superior Copper Companies.	Capital.	Power used.	Male hands.	Annual product. Tons.	Nature of product.	Value of product.
North-West Mining Co.....	$50,000	Water.	114	80	Native copper	$17,000
Copper Falls Mining Co.....	65,000	Horse.	30	10	Native copper	3,000
North-Western Mining Co...	10,000	Hand..	14	..	....	....
North American Mining Co..	70,000	Steam.	110	85	Native copper	17,000
Albion Mining Co.....	15,000	Hand..	9	..	.....	....
Cliff Mine	207,360	Steam*	180	1,028	Native copper	157,000
Lac le Belle Mining Co	28,000	Horse.	6	10	Gray ore	660
Iron City Mining Co.....	1,500	Horse.	15	..	.....	....
Isle Royale Mining Co.....	14,000	Steam.	19	..	.....	....
Cape Mining Co.....	500	Horse.	6	..	.....	....
Pittsburg & L. Roy. Min. Co..	18,000	Hand..	25	2	Ingot	760
Liskanett Mining Co.....	30,000	Horse.	25	25	Native copper	7,500
American Mining Co.....	8,000	Horse.	15	½	Native copper	190
Ontonagon Mining Co.....	15,000	Hand..	20	..	.....	....
Sistagna Mining Co.....	3,000	Hand..	10	..	.....	....
Chesapeake Mining Co.....	5,000	Hand..	10	..	.....	....
Minnesota Mining Co.....	29,000	Steam*	80	257	Native copper	77,100
Algonquin Mining Co..	2,400	Hand..	28	..	.....	....
Ridge Mining Co.....	5,000	Horse.	16	5	Native copper	1,250
Adventure Mining Co.....	15,000	Horse.	16	8	Native copper	2,000
Forest Mining Co	15,000	Horse.	30	5	Native copper	1,000
Ohio Trap Rock Mining Co...	15,000	Horse.	10	10	Native copper	2,500
Merchant Mining Co.....	2,000	Horse.	1	..	.....	....
Total.....	$618,760		789	1,525½		$386,960

COTTON PLANTERS SHOULD BECOME COTTON SPINNERS.

The Executive Committee of the Georgia Agricultural Association have put forth, in an extra, an address to the Southern cotton planters, in which is submitted a very valuable and important suggestion. The subject will be brought forward for discussion at the convention to be held next month in Montgomery, Alabama. From this address we make the following extract, containing important considerations for the cotton planter:—

"Great Britain habitually imports about one-sixth more raw cotton than she manufactures, and, according to Baines, in his history of cotton manufacture, makes a profit of 10 per cent upon the exportation of a portion of that excess to Havre. And she converts into yarn and exports about one-fifth more of the amount of her imports of raw cotton. This is not the place to inquire into the means by which she is enabled to monopolize so large an amount of our raw staple, and to engross so large a profit by a mere transfer of what she cannot use at home across the channel. It is more german to the purpose of this paper to inquire if the cotton planters of the United States may not themselves spin and export part or all of that excess of yarn which Great Britain spins but does not make into cloth? The more direct and practical proposition is, may not the cotton planters look forward to the time when the exportation of raw cotton will be as rare as the exportation of seed cotton was thirty or forty years ago? There are not as great difficulties now to the spinning and exportation of yarns as existed some sixty years ago to the ginning and exportation of clean

* And horse-power.

cotton. Then the cotton-gin was in the hands of the patentees, who endeavored to make a 'great East India concern of it' by establishing ginners at numerous points in the cotton region and coercing the planters to sell their cotton in the seed, by refusing to sell rights to use the gin. That scheme of monopoly, amounting almost to fraud, was defeated by the ingenuity of Nathan Lyons, who invented the saw gin. Now, all the elements for ginning, carding, and spinning exist in machinery of almost perfect construction, and its adaptation to the planter's wants is alone necessary to enable him to spin his own crop at his own homestead. The spinning of cotton—as was one time the ginning of it—is a distinct pursuit, employing a distinct capital, and creating a distinct and antagonizing interest to that of the planter. The same energy that enabled him to unite the ginning out of his crop with the production of it, will now unite, in his own hands, the production, ginning, carding, and spinning. And he will find that he will add proportionally more to the profits of his investment by carding and spinning than he has by ginning his crop, for the women and children may be readily taught to spin in winter what they have aided in cultivating and gathering."

THE AUSTRALIAN GOLD MINES.

By the recent arrivals at London, from Port Philip, accounts have been received with regard to the Victoria Gold Mines up to the 27th January, 1852. It appears that the excitement was rapidly increasing, and that about 20,000 people had already reached the place from the neighboring colonies. Special instances were mentioned in which parties had obtained gold valued at about £30 per day for several successive days, while even since the scarcity of water the average at the chief point of operation had been £8. These results were principally obtained from surface diggings on a slope of the range not a quarter of an acre in extent. It was estimated that since the discovery the general yield, including what had found its way into the banks, had been at least £1,000,000 sterling, and that already, up to the 18th of January, £660,000 had been exported to this country. When the winter rains should set in, it was anticipated that the most extraordinary consequences would be witnessed. In the meantime labor was fetching high rates; reapers were paid 28*s.* a day, besides a considerable allowance of spirits, and servants who previously obtained about £30 to £35 per annum were now readily engaged at £60. The retail business of the place had improved in proportion, the expenditure by the mining population being distinguished for its extravagance. The latest price of gold was £2 18*s.* to £3 per ounce. The amount brought by the present vessel is understood to be £160,000. The Himalaya and Sarah Anne, which left previously with 26,547 and 14,004 ounces, have yet to arrive.

It appears that news had been received of the discovery of gold in New Zealand, in the island of Waiheki, about fifteen miles east of Auckland.

COMPARATIVE COST OF MINING IN CORNWALL AND LAKE SUPERIOR.

The following is a comparative estimate of the expenses of mining in Cornwall, England, and Lake Superior, which is derived from the *Lake Superior Journal*, published at Detroit, Michigan:—

	Lake Superior.	Cornwall.
Sinking shafts, per foot	$14 00	$7 00
Drifting, "	8 00	3 50
Stopeing, "	4 00	2 00
Miners allowed per month	35 00	15 00
Laborers " "	26 00	9 00
Carpenters " "	40 00	17 00
Smiths " "	40 00	17 00
Sawyers, per one thousand feet	18 00	5 50
Timber, (free)	.....	0 30
Water charges	20 00	.....
Engineers, per month	35 00	35 00
Pitmen, "	.....	20 00
Man and horse, per day	3 00	1 25

THE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

From an elaborate article in Poor's *Railroad Journal* for May 15, Mr. Leavitt, the working editor of the *Independent*, has prepared the following table, showing the growth of this trade at intervals of five years, indicating the three different coal regions and the different channels by which the coal is brought to market:—

		TONS.						
Region.	Channels.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1851.
Lehigh..	Lehigh Canal ..	365	28,393	41,750	131,250	225,318	429,453	989,269
Sch'ylkill	Schuylkill Canal		6,500	89,984	339,508	452,291	263,537	579,156
"	Reading Railr'd.		....	.....	.....	.....	820,237	1,605,084
Lackaw'a	Del. & Hud. Can'l		....	43,000	90,000	148,470	273,435	795,059
Susque'a.	Susquehan'a Riv.		....	.....	.....	15,505	188,401	415,099
Total in the year.....		365	34,893	174,734	560,758	841,584	1,975,163	4,383,667

Going back to 1835, as the time when the trade might be considered as established, we find the increase in the five years ending 1840 was 280,826 tons, or 50 per cent; in 1845 it was 1,133,529 tons, or 123 per cent; in 1851, six years, it was 2,408,554 tons, or 122 per cent. The average of the three periods gives 98 per cent as the rate of increase every five years, making an increase of 4,295,993 tons in 1856, or a total for that year of 8,679,660 tons.

The writer before us makes a calculation somewhat different, which leads to 117 per cent, which he reduces to 100 per cent as a ratio, or that the trade will continue to double in extent every five years for a long period to come. For convenience, call the crop of 1851 four millions, of 1856 eight millions, of 1861 sixteen millions, and that of 1871 thirty-two million tons. The writer says:—

"Is there any reason why this rate should be diminished? We think not. In the first place, population is increasing at the same rapid rate as heretofore. Secondly, coal is only just beginning to be used throughout New England, where, ultimately, it must displace all other means of heat for domestic purposes, as well as of mechanical power for manufacturing purposes. New England, as the oldest settled, and already the most bare of wood, must become, and at no distant day, the greatest consumer of Pennsylvania anthracite. Baltimore will probably supply herself, and to some extent the coast below her; but the great cities of Philadelphia and New York, and the whole Atlantic coast north and east of Philadelphia, must become every year more and more dependent upon the coal fields of the Schuylkill, the Lehigh, and the Lackawanna. This whole north-eastern region of the United States, at once the coldest, the most populous, and the most mechanical, and therefore, by all three reasons, requiring the greatest amount of fuel for domestic and mechanical purposes, has, as yet, only begun to use our Pennsylvania coal. So far from any decrease in the rate of consumption, there are the strongest reasons for believing that the rate will be increased."

If the duty on coal should continue to give the great land-proprietors the power to levy a quarter of a dollar per ton on all the coal that is dug there, it will yield them in 1871 the very pretty income of eight or nine millions per annum.

AMERICAN BOHEMIAN GLASS.

Alexander Cummings, the editor of the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, on a recent visit to Boston, took the opportunity of visiting the New England Glass Works, which, for the extent and variety of their operations, probably surpass all others in the country. The editor of the *Bulletin* says:—

"We were especially struck with the fact, new to us, that most of the exquisite, richly colored and decorated glass-ware, which is so much admired under the name of 'Bohemian Glass,' is manufactured at these works. The variety and beauty of the articles manufactured there would scarcely be credited by one not a visitor; but we

can assure our readers that we saw many works that could not be surpassed in Bohemia or anywhere else in Europe. The various processes by which the different colors and the rich gilding are produced we are not prepared to describe, but they are produced at these works in the utmost perfection. The company has the advantage of a charter and large capital, which enable them thus to compete successfully with foreign manufactures in this work; Massachusetts having none of that holy horror of corporations which has retarded so much the development of manufacturing industry in our own State."

DISCOVERY OF GOLD AT QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLAND.

In reference to the golden wealth of Queen Charlotte's Island, in the Pacific, a letter in the New York *Courier and Enquirer*, mentioning the discovery by persons employed by the Hudson's Bay Company, says that "in less than one hour $13,000 worth of gold and quartz intermixed was discovered, and much more might have been secured but for the imprudence of one of the party, who, in his eagerness to secure some of the large pieces, gave the Indians a silver dollar for each large piece of gold. The Indians, although ignorant of the value of the gold, were accustomed to the use of silver from trading with the Hudson Bay Company. After receiving a few dollars they attacked the white men and drove them off to their vessel, and they were obliged to get under way and leave the harbor. Several vessels with armed men have since left San Francisco for the island. The island is about two hundred and forty miles in length, and from twenty to one hundred in breadth, with a beautiful soil and climate. The coast abounds with excellent harbors and large quantities of fish. It has a population of from 7,000 to 10,000 Indians, who lead a roving life, always moving in large bodies from one part of the island to another. The island is nominally a British possession, but it is not inhabited by a single white man.

NORTH-WEST COPPER MINING COMPANY.

The North-West Mining Company have made a statement and exhibit of the operations and financial affairs of the company, from which it appears that the income realized from the sale of copper since the organization of the company, in 1849, amounts to the sum of £94,819 83, and the aggregate expenditures, for the same period, for mining, &c., real estate, live stock, improvements, and steam-engines, amount to the sum of $172,183 96. The results, as will be seen below, for the past three years, are encouraging in the annually increasing quantity of copper raised; and it is reasonable to hope that such increase will continue for some time to come:—

	Mineral raised.	Fine copper.		Per cent.	Cash realized.
1849 .....lbs.	44,196	34,322	at	77⅞	$5,672 71
1850	270,873	195,020		72	35,786 66
1851	434,993	293,199		67¼	53,360 46
Total.....	750,062	522,541		69⅝	$94,819 83

VULCANIZED INDIA RUBBER.

DANIEL WEBSTER, in the India rubber case of GOODYEAR *vs.* DAY, describes minutely the invention claimed by Goodyear for vulcanizing India rubber, as follows:—

"It appears from the evidence in this case, that Chas. Goodyear, in the year 1834, came into the field of operations in the manufacture of India rubber.

"He turned his attention to this subject, not as a matter of business or trade, but by way of commencing and carrying on a series of experiments, by which he could bring to the test the question whether this very extraordinary substance was capable of rendering any benefit to society, to see whether there was any way, given among men skilled in the arts, by which this article could be cleared of its stickiness—its tendency to harden in the frost and soften in the heat; for it is well known that the arti-

cles manufactured up to the year 1834 were entirely useless. If they were exposed to the sun, they became sticky, you could not separate them after their surfaces came in contact; and if exposed to the cold, they became hard and rigid."

To remedy these defects, Mr. Goodyear continued his experiments for years, until he at last invented the vulcanizing process. The great peculiarity of this vulcanizing process is this: if you take a compound of sulphur and rubber in a dry state, and grind and mix them together, and apply heat, the consequence is, that the substance softens, and softens, and softens, as the degree of heat increases, until it reaches a certain hight in the thermometer, say 212° Fahrenheit, or along there, a little more or less.

"Anybody who ever tried the effects to see what would be its operation upon this compound, and found that a great degree of heat, softened and rendered it more and more plastic as the degree of heat was augmented, would naturally be of opinion, that if that heat were carried still higher, the whole substance would melt. I say that everybody would be of that opinion, reasoning *a priori*, and founding his conclusions upon a general knowledge of the effect of heat. But Mr. Goodyear, as the result of untiring experiment, found out that although the application of heat produced a melting effect upon this compound, rendering it more and more plastic and soft as the degree of heat augmented, yet when that heat, going on, had got up to a certain much higher degree, its effect was the reverse of what it had been, and then the rubber composition commenced to vulcanize and harden—in fact, to make metallic the vegetable substance."

GOLD MINES IN VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

The news from Van Dieman's land, in relation to the productiveness of the gold mines, is more flattering than any accounts before received. Labor and merchandise have advanced most rapidly.

In the Melbourne Argus, of January 19, we find the following statistics, relative to the gold obtained from the gold fields of Victoria.

FROM MELBOURNE.

		Oz.	dwt.	gr.
Dec. 29, 1851.	Favorite, Sydney	744	6	12
Dec. 30, "	Himalaya, London	26,547	5	9
Jan. 6, 1852,	Hirondelle, Sydney	1,703	0	0
Jan. 7, "	Sword Fish, Hobart Town	900	0	0
Jan. 8, "	Phebe, Sydney	2,504	0	0
Jan. 15, "	Brilliant, London	42,594	0	10
Jan. 15, "	Thomas and Henry, Sydney	1,000	0	0
Jan. 16, "	Sarah Anne, London	14,004	6	0
		89,996	17	22

FROM GEELONG.

Jan. 8, 1852,	Brilliant, London	12,483	1	4
	Total	102,479	19	0

Making a total with that previously shipped, omitting fractions of an ounce, of 220,305 ounces, amounting, at £3 per ounce, to the sum of £680,915.

The article closes with the following announcement:—

"We have hastily thrown these few facts together, by way of asking our English friends, what they think of the prospects of a little colony, which, in less than four months, has managed to export 9 tons, 3 cwt., 58 lbs., 9 oz., of gold, and has plenty more to follow!"

LIQUID LEATHER.

Dr. Beruland, of Larria, in Germany, is said to have discovered a method of making leather out of certain refuse and waste animal substances. He has established a manufactory near Vienna; no part of the process is explained; but it is stated that the substance is at one stage in a state of fluidity, and may then be cast into boots, shoes, &c. Such a discovery is not improbable.

THE VALUE OF AN ACRE OF COAL LAND.

The Pottsville (Pa.) *Mining Register* alluding to the cheapness of land in that quarter a few years ago, says now an acre of coal land is worth $18,000. Many set down a higher figure. In the South basin, (that is, from the Sharp Mountain to the Mine Hill,) where we have all the veins, (thirteen, including, red and white ash,) the whole thickness of the coal is ninety feet. Allowing one-half of this for fault and waste in mining, we have 45 feet, or 15 yards in thickness, of merchantable coal. There being 48,000 square yards to the acre, we have, by multiplying this number by the thickness, 72,000 square yards or tons of coal per acre; which at a rent of 25 cents per ton, brings $18,000. This is a fair estimate of the real value of an acre of our coal land, without exaggeration or embellishment. It is not strange, therefore, that our lands have, and are still increasing in value. In England, coal lands not possessing near the intrinsic value of ours, sell at from one to two thousand pounds sterling per acre.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

AN OLD MERCHANT'S ADVICE.

MARTIN TAKEITTHROUGH—who must be a son or grandson of old GOAHEAD POTTHROUGH—through the medium of the Palmetto State Banner, gives the following advice to his nephew, JACK GOINGTHROUGH:—

MY DEAR NEPHEW:—I am rejoiced to learn that you are in good health, and are just commencing business on your own account. I have heretofore remarked your shrewdness in commercial transactions in which you were engaged for the benefit of others, and I feel confident, that having launched upon your own boat, and started on your own book, you will still maintain a character which weighs so greatly in my estimation. Being so nearly related to myself, it is of course my desire that you shall meet with the most complete success. You are intelligent and enterprising—two qualities, without which, little or nothing can be achieved.

Thirty years ago, I launched my bark upon the same tempestuous sea. I had nothing to begin with, it is true; but I did not despair—I know that others had succeeded in making the same voyage. I tried it, on the square, for some time, that is to say, I did not take any of the little advantages of which others availed themselves, for purposes of gain. But I soon found that, riches being the object in view, I must adopt their plan or I would never succeed in business. It is too late in the day for one to think of acting upon the principle that "honesty is the best policy"—it is an erroneous doctrine—it won't do in the 19th century. Men must suit their consciences to their interests—have easy consciences. They must know and acknowledge but one rule for their guidance upon every occasion—that rule is short and pointed—embraced in one word—"SKIN!"

Occasionally you may find one, who, in his folly, strictly acts up to his vaunted principle, honesty. What is the consequence? He remains poking and groveling in the mud for a life-time, while every day he beholds his neighbors, who are not so squeamish as himself, rearing their palaces and reveling in luxuries to him unknown. He may be thought well of by a few poor fellows (dupes of honesty) like himself, but the majority having a different standard of excellence, will give him the cold shoulder and keep him jammed to the wall. Such a fate should never be mine, and if I am at all acquainted with your spirit it will never be yours. I got along gradually at first. Ten per cent satisfied me then, but I found it wouldn't do, so I commenced increasing and continued to increase. Twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, and sometimes one hundred per cent. Complaints, of course, I had almost any quantity—but what of that? Where I lost one customer I would gain two others. Some couldn't use my sugar; they said it was all sand, but this was a vile misrepresentation—only thirty per cent was sand, and that of the cleanest kind. Sand is wholesome: it is an invaluable aid to digestion. I was actually contributing to the health of the silly beings, by mixing sand with my sugar; but they knew it not, and the manufacturer had to bear the blame, of course, as I would not acknowledge my agency. They said my liquor was half water; well, so it was, and so much the better for it. All parties were benefited.

Liquor, we all know, is hurtful—if, then, I weakened its strength, by adding a portion of that delightful beverage appropriated for the use of the whole human family, and made it less powerful for evil, I was undoubtedly entitled to commendation rather than abuse. At all events I put cash into my pocket by the operation, and received their curses in a philosophical spirit, that could not have been excelled by Socrates himself. So with coffee and tea—the first was half rocks, and the last almost entirely composed of sloe leaves. You cannot conceive how I was vilified—but what of that? I was making money like dust—folks knew it, and I was outwardly respected accordingly. I was a rising man then, and I have been rising ever since.

You must SKIN in self-defence. There are but two classes in the world—the *Skinner* and the *Skinned*. The former are wise men; the latter are fools. If you do not skin, you must assuredly *be* skinned—so you can make your choice. Pay no attention to derogatory remarks, but skin on.

We are no worse than the majority of business men. There is trickery in all trades and professions. Each is trying with might and main to get the advantage of the other. The lawyer, the doctor, the merchant, the workman—all are on an equality. Some ignorant people may call it swindling—but, poor souls! they know no better, and deserve to be bitten for their egregious ignorance. They learn soon that the only way to keep from being bitten to death, is to bite back. They make your sharpest biters, those who have been well torn. They bite all mankind for what they think is an injury inflicted on them by one. A dog blessed with the hydrophobia is not a circumstance with them!

It is perfectly safe, if you manage right. Your eye-teeth must be cut before you venture out into deep water. As for conscience, as I before intimated, no business man can keep one and succeed in the world. It is nothing but a dead weight, always holding him back, when it is evidently his interest to go forward. If you have not already come to the conclusion to discard it, I must beg you to do so, by all means. No merchant, with a conscience, ever gets fat—no such a one ever sleeps well of nights. I assert with perfect truth, when I say that I never feel better than when I have just gone through with a skinning operation. My spirits are revived, and I number my gains with a joyousness utterly astonishing to weak nerves.

Do not boggle at what some call lying. "Men are born liars." Lie with emphasis—lie with seriousness—lie with impudence. Never lie unless you can see a chance to make something thereby—then lie boldly. A man, especially a merchant, who always tells the truth, and nothing but the truth, must frequently be the victim of disappointment. He cannot succeed, and it is perfectly useless for him to think of it. I told the truth once, and I have repented it to this day. I lost a thousand dollars. I could have made it just as easy as winking. That sum, singly, is not much to me now, but just think—in the ten years since I committed that offence, how much might have been made with it. It would have quadrupled itself at the least calculation. I took a solemn oath, never to catch myself again!

Be always on hand. Never lose a chance. Remember, it is the early bird that snaps up the worm. Every human gudgeon is hooked up by somebody; so take your chance. They are curious—show them *your* elephant. Keep a little good liquor to treat them with. Don't drink yourself, but fill them to the muzzle before commencing trade. They purchase with desperation when about half or three parts fuddled. Anything—everything—nothing comes amiss. Backbite your neighbors—declare they are knaves, swindlers, cheats, thieves—wouldn't trust them out of sight. Then, when you have got them well screwed in your vice, squeeze, until they are as dry as dust. That is the way, my dear nephew, to show yourself worthy of the appellation of a business man, and to do honor to my instructions. Your loving uncle,

MARTIN TAKEMTHROUGH.

SMUGGLING IN SPAIN.

The *Madrid Gazette* contains a decree extending the line of custom-houses through the province of Zaragoza, from Justinana and Navarre, as far as the province of Huesca. This measure has been taken in consequence of the increase of smuggling and the complete and dangerous organization of smugglers in that department. The government begins to find that it is impossible to maintain its protective system without recourse to custom-houses in the interior.

LANDING A STEAMBOAT PASSENGER.

The Poughkeepsie Eagle reports an interesting law case which has recently been decided in the Circuit Court of Oyer and Terminer, in that place. It seems that a gentlemen by the name of Whinfield, belonging to Poughkeepsie, took passage at New York on the steamboat Oregon, buying a through ticket to Albany, as, owing to the competition, a through ticket could be bought for a less price than a way ticket. When the boat reached Poughkeepsie, Whinfield offered his through ticket and attempted to go ashore; but the officers of the boat forcibly resisted him, and carried him against his will to Albany. Whinfield brought a suit against the owners and officers of the boat for assault and false imprisonment; contending that a through ticket entitled the holder to land wherever he pleased on the way. The court sustained this position; ruling, that a through ticket entitled a passenger to land at any place where the boat stopped; and that in fact all the passengers had a right to walk ashore at any place. That a passenger not paying his passage, when demanded, was liable to be put on shore immediately; but if the steamboat came to Poughkeepsie or any other dock, a passenger who had not paid his passage had a right to go ashore without any detention from the owners or employees of the boat; and that in fact the owners must collect the passage money before starting; and that if not collected at that time, it was a debt, and to be collected as other debts; and that it was false imprisonment to detain any passenger from landing. Under this ruling the jury found a verdict of $150 and costs against the captain, clerk, and ticket agent of the Oregon.

A SELF-WINDING OR PERPETUAL CLOCK.

After years of mathematical labor and mechanical results, Professor Willis, of Rochester, has completed and has now in constant operation a self-winding clock, which determines the seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months, and years of time with unfailing accuracy, continuing in constant motion, by itself, never requiring to be wound up, never running down, but moving perpetually so long as its components exist. It might easily be called a perpetual motion, and it is so in one sense, but the inventor very properly makes no such claim. The scientific will at once understand this upon inspection. The Rochester *Democrat* says that the clock stands upon two uprights about six feet high, with a large highly-finished dial. Its mechanism is all exposed to the closest scrutiny, and the movement of its simple escapement and its direct motion is as plain to the eye as the truth and force of its well applied principles to the mind.

BUSINESS OF DUBUQUE IN 1851.

It appears from the report of a committee appointed by the city council of Dubuque, Iowa, that the number of steamboats that arrived there during the boating season of 1851 was 353, and the number of departures 352. Dubuque exported 4,287 tons of merchandise of the value of $283,207 59; and imported 24,663 tons of the value of $1,175,207 40. The number of immigrants who have been landed from steamers we find to be 2,824. The articles embraced in the above summary of exports consist chiefly of the agricultural products of the soil, lead, horses, cattle, and hogs. The imports were mostly made up of dry goods, groceries, queensware, machinery, leather, lumber &c. The amount of insurance by merchants and others upon exports was in and about the sum of $1,749, and that paid upon imports $8,814, making the aggregate paid for insurance the sum of $10,563.

OF THE COASTING TRADE BETWEEN NEW YORK AND VIRGINIA.

An act was passed by the legislature of New York on the 20th March, 1852, "exempting vessels and persons engaged in the coasting trade between the port of New York and the Capes of Virginia, from Quarantine," as follows:—

SEC. 1. Article first, title second, chapter fourteen, of the first part of the revised statutes, entitled of the place of quarantine, and the vessels and persons subject thereto, shall not apply to Vessels and persons engaged in the coasting trade between the port of New York and any of the Capes of Virginia; and all such vessels and persons may at all times enter the port of New York without being subject to quarantine, the same as if they did not pass to the south of Cape Henlopen, except in case there may be sickness on board, when they shall be subject to the existing provisions of laws.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Five Years in an English University.* By CHARLES ASTOR BRISTED, late Foundation Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam, 155 Broadway.

Mr. Bristed's book has a right to a place among the latest voyages to unexplored regions, and by the side of the last journey to the interior of Africa. Polar seas and regions are rather better known to the American public, than the modes of life and course of studies in the Great English Universities. Our ignorance in this respect, is the more striking from our familarity with the German Universities, with which numerous books, learned and familiar, and the experience of many an American student have made us acquainted. In the colonial times, young Americans of aspiration used to repair to the English Universities, but very few have found their way there since. Mr. Bristed's experience, therefore, was something unique and well worth narrating. Mr. Bristed has very decided talent for description, the minuteness of observation, the eye for details, which give vividness and life. His pictures of university life are as piquant as Howitt's similar sketches of German student life. Having graduated at New Haven also, he is enabled to contrast his experience of the American with the English College system, much to the disadvantage of the former. The book, in fact, under a narrative form is much more; it is a formal *expose* of the defects of American classical scholarship, of the superiority of English, and of the mode by which the inferiority is to be removed, which is the substitution of the English system. We confess we were more struck in Mr. Bristed's Companion, with the points of resemblance than of difference, between the English and American system of college study and discipline. They were both formed on the same model—the monastic discipline; both breathe the same school-boy spirit. The difference is a difference of degree, not of kind. The American collegian ends his college course at twenty, the English begins at about that age; the American devotes about seven years to the classics, the English student, twelve or more; and above all, the English student pursues his course at a mature age. But the system is the same; competition, artificial incitements, coaches, steam, petty restraints, study to pass examination, not to learn. The fact is, England and America must alike acknowledge the literary sovereignty of Germany in classical learning. The best labors of English scholars consist in working up the results of German erudition, translating German treatises, editing German editions. What is Liddel and Scott's Lexicon, cited by Mr. Bristed as proof of Oxford industry, but a translation in the main! When the classics are studied by *men*, as a profession, such results may be expected, but we study them as an inferior branch, preparatory to law, divinity, or medicine, not, like the faculty of Philosophy in Germany, co-ordinate with them. Mr. Bristed's book, however, is full of valuable suggestions; it is written in a frank, manly spirit, with much earnestness, and withal good humor, full too of those personal details which make such interesting reading. For how many pleasant hours is the world indebted to the amiable egotism of its Pepyses and Berneys! At the same time we cannot too much applaud this race instead of an American man of wealth earnestly laboring in the cause of good letters. We think Mr. Bristed underrates American scholarship. We have not space to show how; but really it seems scarce confirmation of his complaint, when in a book so professedly scholarly, there occur such errors as *indagimus facile andiisse*, etc., which we can of course call nothing but mieprints. Is it impossible to have Latin and Greek correctly printed in New York?

2.—*Harper's New Monthly Magazine. Vol. 4. December, 1851, to May, 1852.* 8vo., pp. 863. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A fourth volume of Harper's Magazine was completed with the May number. It is unnecessary to repeat what all the world in the United States and the Canadas well know, that nowhere else can be found the same amount of agreeable reading, at the same expense, as in these pages. The good taste of the work, the excellence of its varied contents, and the discrimination in their choice are well appreciated. The aid of such writers as the Abbotts, and the entertainment and instruction of their articles cannot be too highly valued. It is a work that should be received into every family. Each volume improves in appearance. Many of the articles in these pages are profusely illustrated with well executed cuts. Indeed no labor or cost seems to be spared to make this work as complete, and tasteful, and perfect as possible.

3.—*Philadelphia as it is in 1852: Being a Correct Guide to all the Public Buildings; Literary, Scientific, and Benevolent Institutions; and Places of Amusement, Remarkable Objects, Commercial Warehouses, and Wholesale and Retail Stores in Philadelphia and its Vicinity. With Illustrations, and a Map of the City and its Environs.* By R. A. Smith. 12mo., pp. 452. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston.

The title of this work explains its contents at length. It is sufficient to say that it is issued in very good taste, and contains many well executed cuts.

4.—*The World Here and There; or Notes of Travelers.* From "Household Words." Edited by Charles Dickens. No. 4, 12mo., pp. 231.

5.—*The Existence of a God and Human Immortality Philosophically Considered, and the Truth of Divine Revelation Substantiated.* By J. Bovee Dods. 12mo., pp. 215. New York: Fowlers and Wells.

This author is a pleasant and easy writer. In his discussion of the subject of the existence of the Deity he has presented many strong facts in a forcible and popular manner.

6.—*The Hive and the Honey-Bee; with Plain Directions for Obtaining a Considerable Annual Increase from this Branch of Rural Economy. To which is added an Account of the Diseases of Bees, with their Remedies. Also Remarks as to their Enemies, and the Best Mode of Protecting the Bees from their Attacks.* By H. D. Richardson. With illustrations on wood. 8vo., pp. 72. New York: C. M. Saxton.

7.—*Journey to Iceland, and Travels in Sweden and Norway.* Translated by Charlotte F. Cooper. 12mo., pp. 270. New York: G. P. Putnam.

Madame Pheiffer, the author of this volume, is the woman who through curiosity made the tour of the world. The same motive led her to Ireland. She is shrewd, sensible, and often striking in her observations, and the reader will follow her with interest throughout her trip. The volume forms number eight of Putnam's Cheap Library.

8.—*Les Aventures de Telemaque, fils d'Ulysse.* Par M. Fenelon. D'apres l'edition de M. Charles Brun. 12mo., pp. 395. New York: Leavitt & Allen.

Fenelon's Telemachus is a work too well known to the public to require explanation. For two hundred years it has been the admiration of mankind. This edition is issued in very good taste, in clear and distinct type, and substantial paper. The signification of the most difficult words is added at the foot of each page, and a brief compendium of ancient history and geography, so far as may be necessary, to increase the intelligibility of the work, is placed at the close, as an appendix. We have never seen a better edition for youth.

9.—*Notes, Explanatory and Practical, on the Book of Revelations.* By Albert Barnes. 12mo., pp. 506. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is an excellent work on a subject upon which so much has been written, and so little is actually known. The author entered upon the task of exposition not precisely from any previous purpose, or to establish a theory of his own, but rather in the coarse of his private studies. Finding much in historical writers to confirm the views which arose in his own mind, he was led to complete and publish them. His well known ability and success in biblical investigations are such as to entitle this work to a cordial reception.

10.—*Miscellanies.* By Rev. James Martineau. 12mo., pp. 472. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

The contents of this volume consist of articles which have heretofore appeared in the English periodicals, but they treat of such high themes, and possess such a lofty tone, clearness of moral discrimination, affluence of imagery, and vigorous precision of language, that they not only made quite an impression upon their first appearance, but have been regarded, and with justice, as worthy to be reproduced in a more permanent form. The titles of some of the articles are the following:—"The battle of the Churches;" "The Church of England;" "Church and State;" "Life and correspondence of Thomas Arnold;" and among liberal Christians this volume will find great favor, and they will regard its appearance, in the present state and tendencies of opinion, as very timely.

11.—*St. Paul's Epistles to the Corinthians: an Attempt to Convey their Spirit and Significance.* By JOHN HAMILTON THOM. 12mo., pp. 400. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

All scholars and deep students are warned off from these pages. They are designed for the unlearned; for those who desire religious truth with simplicity, sincerity, and love. The author belongs to that class known as liberal Christians, and while he displays in his annotations of Paul's Epistle all that depth of thought and elegance of diction, peculiar to his brethren, yet he has farther advanced than is usual, into a field which is often comparatively overlooked. He not only believes, but feels that it is through the heart alone man can sympathize with whatever exists behind the veil; that the feelings of the heart are the ultimate source of all thought and all action; that love and its kindred affections only, constitute all that is immortal of the acquisitions of man on earth.

12.—*The Two Families: an Episode in the History of Chapelton.* By the author of Rose Douglas. 12mo., pp. 261. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Some very agreeable and pleasing scenes will be found in these pages, and the whole work is written with much strength and force. But there are several of the characters strongly depicted which are destitute of any attraction whatever. Indeed they are such that scarcely a reader can desire their acquaintance. These are blemishes which seriously mar what might have been made, with a little modification, a very attractive tale.

13.—*The Howadji in Syria.* By GEO. WM. CURTIS. 12mo., pp. 304. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There may be some readers who will be pleased with this work. The author is happy in the selection of his language, which is generally the most mellow and soft words. The order of their arrangement is less harmonious, and often made at the expense of the thought, which should never be done. There are many pleasing and agreeable passages, but nothing which the reader will call "downright good." The effort to polish and finish is glaring all over, and often there is a far-fetchedness in the thoughts, an absence of that truthful and natural adaptation to the subject which is requisite to agreeable reading of every kind. It is, in other respects, a work of much better taste than most writers possess, though art has done more than nature here. We do not desire to deter any reader from a book which he ought to possess, and which is worth far more than the mere cost. It belongs to a peculiar and difficult department of composition, and we have examined it as such.

14.—*The British Colonies; their History, Extent, Condition, and Resources.* By R. M. MARTIN. Part 38. New York: John Tallis & Co.

A finely executed portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby embellishes this number. In its pages the history of the colony of Cape Town during the year 1814 is continued.

15.—*Tallis's Scripture Natural History for Youth. Part* 13. 18mo. New York: John Tallis & Co.

It contains sixteen colored and finely executed plates of birds which are mentioned in scripture, accompanied with a very interesting and instructive outline of their natural history.

16.—*The Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* By R. M. Martin. Part 47. New York: John Tallis & Co.

This part contains a beautiful engraving of the city of Edinburg, and some additional pages of the Index Gazetteer. We have often expressed our gratification at the elegant execution of these maps.

17.—*Lillian and other Poems.* By W. MACKWORTH PRAED. Now first collected. 12mo., pp. 290. New York: J. S. Redfield.

It is a very unusual circumstance in these days that the author of poems of so much merit as these, should never attempt the task of their collection from the ephemeral publications in which they have first appeared. On the contrary, the labor has been done in this country for an English poet who was far too careless of his reputation. The contents of the volume consist of numerous pieces, some of which are of considerable length, and others are quite brief. They possess a delicate sensibility and a richness of fancy intermingled often with a tone of sadness which imparts to them an intense charm.

18.—*The Life and Letters of Barthold George Niebuhr, with Essays on his Character and Influence.* By CHEVALIER BÜNSEN and PROFESSORS BRANDIS and LORBELL. 12mo., pp. 563. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A large portion of this work consists of letters, and extracts of letters, by Niebuhr. It is not a selection from his learned and general correspondence, but simply biographical. It aims to communicate whatever can throw light upon the natural capacities and dispositions of this distinguished man; his mental development, his studies, his art and literature, his profound sympathies, and, not less, his faults and weaknesses. Much is also presented respecting his public career; perhaps to as great an extent as was possible, while such a mass of his memorials, dispatches, and valuble collections of letters remain inaccessible to the public.

19.—*The Legislative Guide;* containing all the Rules for conducting Business in Congress; Jefferson's Manual and the Citizen's Manual, including a concise System of Rules of Order, founded on Congressional Proceedings, with copious Notes and Marginal References, explaining the Rules and the Authority therefor; designed to economize Time and secure Uniformity in the Proceedings of all Deliberative Assemblies, and also to meet the Wants of every private Citizen who desires to understand the right way to transact public business. By J. B. BURLEIGH, LL. D. 8vo., pp. 287. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The title of this work amply explains the fullness of its contents. Something of this kind seems to be required, which shall serve as a standard authority upon the order of proceedings in all public assemblies. This is the only work with which we are acquainted that is worthy to fill such a position.

20.—*The Solar System: A Descriptive Treatise upon the Sun, Moon, and Planets, including an Account of all recent Discoveries.* By J. R. HIND, Secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society. 12mo., pp. 198. New York: G. P. Putnam.

A series of works on popular and practical science is one of the features of Putnam's Popular Library; and this volume is the first of that series. It is admirably adapted to present the reader, within a small compass, with a view of the present state of astronomical science, embracing the recent discoveries in astronomy, and its last results.

21.—*The Temperance Tales.* By LUCIUS M. SARGENT. New Illustrated Edition. 2 vols. in one, 12mo., pp. 632. Boston: John P. Jewett.

The temperance tales of Mr. Sargent were among the earliest productions devoted to the progress of that movement, and have become familiar as "household words." They were prepared for the purpose of doing good, and, we believe, it is universally acknowledged that they have been eminently successful in that respect. Hundreds of thousands have already been scattered over the earth. Editions have been published in England, Scotland, and Botany Bay, at Madras, and in South India; and several of the tales have been translated into the German and other European languages. The present edition comprises the whole series, and is, perhaps, the best edition that has yet been published of these standard tales.

22.—*On the Study of Words.* By R. D. FRENCH, B. D. From the second London Edition. 12mo., pp. 286. New York: J. S. Redfield.

These lectures on the study of words were prepared under the conviction on the part of the author, that there were many words in our language, which in their origin, changes, and present use, presented historical facts extremely interesting and instructive. A considerable number of such words treated in a suitable manner to illustrate this conviction form the contents of the volume. The reader will soon be convinced of the correctness of these views, and find in those pages much that is useful and interesting relative to many words and synonyms.

23.—*Revolutionary Memorials, Embracing Poems by the Rev. W. Wheeler Case, Published in* 1778, *with an Appendix Containing Burgoyne's Proclamation in Burlesque, &c., &c.* Edited by STEPHEN DODD. 12mo., pp. 69. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This is a new edition of poetic pieces published in Revolutionary times. Of course they breath the spirit of the day. Their poetic merit is inconsiderable, but as illustrative of seventy-six, they are curious and striking.

24.—*Nights in a Block-House; or Sketches of Border Life: Embracing Adventures Among the Indians, Tents of the Wild Hunters, and Exploits of Border Heroes of the West.* By HENRY O. WATSON. With numerous Illustrations. 8vo., pp. 448. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The plan of this work is such as to unite the interest of the novel with the usefulness of history. Under this freedom the author describes, in most glowing terms, individual adventures among the Indians of the West. True in their general outlines and their more important features, they are sketched with a liveliness of fancy and a fullness of spirit, which is wanting in the mere historical description. The reader can here obtain a better idea of Western life in those early days, than if they were written with more tameness. He can scarcely fail to be interested in all parts of this volume.

25.—*Heroines of History. Illustrated.* Edited by MARY E. HEWETT. 12mo., pp. 325. New York: Cornish & Lamport.

The design of this volume is to present within moderate limits, sketches of the lives of women rendered illustrious by their heroism and virtues. Its list contains the names of Semiramis, Nictoris, Zenobia, Boadicea, Berengeria, Laura, Joan of Arc, Isabella of Castile, Ann Bolyn, Lady Jane Grey, &c., comprising sixteen in all. The sketches, which are spirited, are chiefly personal, brief, and interesting. They are each accompanied with a portrait executed with more than ordinary skill and taste.

26.—*Researches Respecting Americus Vespucius and his Voyages.* By VISCOUNT SANTAREM, Ex-Prime Minister of Portugal. Translated by E. V. CHILDE. 12mo., pp. 221. Boston: Little & Brown.

This work is from an intelligent and accomplished source, whatever the author may be politically at home; and the reader will quickly become enlisted in its investigations. They relate to many important particulars in the life of an ancient navigator, which have lost none of their interest through the lapse of time.

27.—*Ixion and other Poems.* By HARVEY HUBBARD. 12mo., pp. 165. Boston Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The poems flow from a highly cultivated, artistic pen. The reader will find in them much that is polished and skillfully said, with many nice conceptions and pleasing fancies. But they possess few traces of that fine poetic fancy which stamps the great poet; or that exuberance of soul which mellows all that fancy paints or imagination conceives.

28.—*The Approaching Crisis: Being a Review of Dr. Bushnell's recent Lectures on Supernaturalism.* By ANDREW JACKSON DAVIS. 8vo., pp. 221. New York: Published by the Author.

In these pages the author has endeavored to meet the question of Rationalism or Supernaturalism, which he regards as the great one of the day. He plants himself upon that sense of repugnance, which a large portion of mankind entertain toward the extreme views of an antiquated theology. Regarding this repugnance as the true voice of mankind, he proceeds to examine the views and doctrines of Supernaturalism. There is great vigor, energy, and clearness in this thought, with a directness and force that carry their peculiar weight with them.

29.—*A Biographical and Critical Dictionary of Painters, Engravers, Sculptors, and Architects. From Ancient to Modern Times; with the Monograms, Ciphers, and Molds used by Distinguished Artists to Certify their Works.* By Rev. S. SPOONER, A. B. M. D. 8vo., Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. New York: G. P. Putnam.

In ten numbers this work will be completed. The extent and variety of its contents is apparent from the title. One wonders how it is possible for an individual so fully and completely to investigate so extensive a field. This is, however, explained by the author in his statement, that he has devoted to it his leisure for twenty years. His aim has been to give the cream of the whole history of the fine arts in such a form that all can afford to buy and read. The biographical notices are no less instructive than interesting; particularly in the department filled by the ancients. American art is also carefully and extensively noticed; on the whole the lover of the arts will be greatly pleased with this work.

30.—*The Art Journal for May and June.* New York: George Virtue.

These two numbers contain some very fine engravings. "The Mother," in the June number is executed with great skill and is a fine display of art. "Juliet and the Nurse," is poorly done: "Crossing the Ford," in the May number is well designed: "The Sea-shore in Holland," is quite picturesque and striking. The smaller cuts and engravings are chiefly well executed specimens of art in former days. The text is unusually full in its descriptions of works of art, and is quite instructive as well as entertaining.

31.—*Boydell's Illustrations of Shakspeare.* Parts 42 & 43. New York: S. Spooner.

No. 42 contains an engraving of a scene in the third Act of Henry VIII. and another from the fifth Act in Coriolonus. They are better done than usual; the persons are numerous and their persons and postures are natural, and their countenances expressive of much fine sentiment. In the next part the engravings represent a scene in the fourth Act of Timon of Athens, and in the fourth Act of Titus Andronicus. These are good, but, perhaps inferior in expression to those of the previous number.

32.—*Memoir of Rev. Stephen B. Smith.* By T. J. Sawyer. 12mo., pp. 423. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

This is a biography of an active, laborious, and resolute man, who rose to high influence and distinction among the Universalist denomination of Christians.

33.—*Cosmos: A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe.* By Alexander Von Humbolt. Translated from the German by E. L. Otte & B. H. Paul. Vol 4, 12mo., pp. 234. New York: Harper & Bros.

The work of this eminent man, has been, in parts, so long before the public that it has become well known and justly esteemed. This is the fourth and latest volume now re-printed for the first time in this country by the Messrs. Harper.

34.—*Graces and Powers of the Christian Life.* By A. D. Mayo. 12mo., pp. 250. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

It is good to turn away from the dry and barren skeleton of theology which is on all sides forced upon the gaze of the public, to a work like this which has flesh and blood and sinews and life. It contains, to a large degree, the spirit of Christianity with its peculiar geniality and richness, and buoyancy, and happiness, and is worth hundreds of massive tomes of the usual character. It is written in good taste and in a cultivated style.

35.—*Biographical Literaria: or Biographical Sketches of my Literary Life and Opinions.* By Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Fom the second London edition, prepared for publication, in part, by the late Henry Nelson Coleridge; completed and and published by his widow. Large 12mo., pp. 802. New York: Wm. Gowans.

Of all the works of Coleridge, this is the one that has proved most acceptable to the public, and which presented the fullest and most correct idea of the man himself. His conversation, his opinions on literary men and subjects, brief essays, &c., will be here presented in a very agreeable and instructive manner. Much credit is due to the publisher for bringing out this valuable work and for the tasteful manner in which it has been done.

36.—*The Year-Book of Facts in Science and Art, Exhibiting the most Important Discoveries and Improvements of the Past Year, in Mechanics and the Useful Arts; Natural Philosophy, Electricity, Chemistry, Zoology and Botany, Geology and Geography, Meteorology and Astronomy.* By John Timbs. 12mo., pp. 327. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

Every one who is interested in science or its progress, will place a peculiar value upon this volume. It is a history of science during the past year. It embraces every invention and discovery of importance, and these are described in brief and comprehensive terms.

37.—*Falkland; a Novel.* By Sir E. L. Bulwer. 8vo., pp. 99. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

38.—*Remorse, and other Tales.* By G. P. R. James. 8vo., pp. 134. New York: Bunce & Brothers.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

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BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

AUGUST, 1852.

Art. I.—INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE UPON LAW.

AGRICULTURE—COMMERCE—THE LATTER EXPANDING, GUIDING, AND GUARDING LAW—THE EARLY LAWS—THE ROMAN SYSTEM—THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SYSTEM EVINCING THE INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE.

TILLAGE of the earth is the first of arts. Ordained by the Deity, it is essential to natural and social existence, and forms the basis of civilization and wealth. The artisan, merchant, and mariner, are fed mainly by the farmer; who, in affording support to life, contributes to the first principle and desire of our nature. Hence, primary encouragement and encomium are demanded by this pursuit. The ancients with propriety venerated the plow; and offered gratulations to the successful husbandman. If culture of the earth were neglected, where could moral and intellectual culture be sustained? or, without rural districts to produce superabundant sustenance, whence would cities derive nutriment?

The man who stands upon his own soil, who feels that by the laws of the land in which he lives—by the laws of civilized nations—he is the rightful and exclusive owner of the land which he tills, is by the constitution of our nature under a wholesome influence not easily imbibed from any other source.* The necessary labor performed in this pursuit contributes to invigorate health, and to enhance human zest and enjoyment. The domain the farmer improves, and the trees planted by his own hand—inciting his heart by expectation—seem to him as friends; and, in proportion to the toil and care bestowed, is the ardency of his attachment. Continued communion, too, with the many operations of nature, inspires generous sentiments in the human breast. Thus agriculture, the primary employment of

* E. Everett.

mankind and the seminary of steadiness and virtue, is, at once, the foundation of a nation's glory and the bulwark of its liberty. It is the supply and defense of other pursuits: the substantial timber of wealth and dominion. Out of it arise the unpolished materials and raw productions for many a science, and the elementary interests of enlightened government.

Yet this pursuit accomplishes its end by easy and sure methods, and usually requires exertions of ordinary powers without exposure to hazard or danger. Its estimation is diminished in the presence of many pursuits more precarious and unstable: those pursuits which, often requiring less rustic and more refined acquirements, demand talents more versatile with greater exposure to vicissitudes and ventures.

The sphere of the husbandman is limited; showing less elegance and skill than rustic and rugged utility. Supplying demands of nature, it is in a great degree a stranger to cultured taste and finish, as well as to many refinements and luxuries. Yet, bound by many ties to a single locality, the agricultor in general is patriotic and loyal. He possesses habits rather monotonous than migratory; with opinions and manners but little inclined to change. Clearing and cultivating the soil, methods perhaps of hunting and fishing, the care and rearing of stock, with the plainer domestic arts and engagements, secure his attention. Digging of wells, regulation of roads, erection of bridges, habitations, barns and mills, together with edifices for education and divine worship, are calls upon his toil. Here, resort is had to mechanic arts affording implements and utensils necessary in these labors, with those needed in the plainest domestic manufactures. Articles needful for comfort are mainly fabricated by the females of the household. Diligent attention, with patient industry, keeps at bay the enemies of contentment. Games and sports of society are athletic and valiant; and efforts at endurance and hardihood are feats most praiseworthy and pleasing.

The seasons rotate with their influences and productions, while little obscurity attends the Creator's unfoldings. The farmer, observing the progress of nature, fences and fertilizes his fields, and maintains productive his inclosures. He delves and plows with a mind to tillage, and develops the strength of the steed and ox in the toil of his domain. He is diligent to know of his flocks and herds, and to attain food and clothing for his household. Meditating upon the beauties and bounties of nature, his mind is oftener quieted to repose than quickened into action. To the hazard of conflagration he is but little exposed. Perils attending agitated waves of the ocean seldom awaken his concern. Afar from speculative adventures and risks of precarious circumstances, he is seldom annoyed by fluctuations of trade or fanciful turns of fashion. When the harvest arrives, he fills his barns and cribs; and his toil is rewarded in the abundance of his increase. Revulsions and panics, with sudden and overwhelming reverses in trade, find him as unconcerned as do city tumults awakened by gusts of human passion. The simple grandeur of his rural state is exempt from all complexity of business relations, and he lives free from that manifold collision of interests encompassing denizens of cities.

What arts soever are gained different from the least mature and refined, the most rustic and simple, come from other branches of society than the agricultural. Without barter or Commerce, total possessions would be indigenous productions; while society would continue with few conveniences and comforts. Locked up within a single domain, uninitiated in remote and foreign observation, and destitute of distant exchanges and examples, a

simple and monotonous existence would be perpetual. Is it not Commerce that emblazons characteristics of those who appear on the ocean, that theater of enterprise and highway of nations? Does not Commerce prompt the erection of extensive granaries, suggest internal improvements and facilitate transportation and travel? Is it not Commerce that enables the agriculturist to study traditions and scan the customs and manners of other nations? Ideas upon tilth-producing soils, merits of domestic animals, with useful merchandise and novel and marvelous objects, come floating to the farmer on the tide of Commerce.

Among the foremost aspects of Commerce is that of exchange, gift for gift. In daily intercourse, in the friendly circle, in the great life of the people, everywhere seeing thrift and prosperity, see we also trade. "Commerce," says Justice Story, "undoubtedly is traffic; but it is something more. It is intercourse." Surplus agricultural and manufactural with scientific productions, are taken to foreign lands; and returning messengers bring innumerable commodities to increase varieties and quicken ingenuity of home. As ships' bottoms imperceptibly accumulate barnacles, so ideas enure to those engaged in trade. Exchanges and interviews in amplifying means of erudition, illuminate the understanding. Traffic appearing, the bugle sounds, awakening pursuits of science; and Commerce calls out and arrays the operatives of progress. Giving play to affluent energies, sallying out in search of gain and instruction, and emiting incitements to scrutiny, Commerce enlarges domains of discernment and skill. It elicits and confers on rough material real and fancied utility. It urges mechanic, manufactural, and artistic experiments to elaborate attention; and, in affording a broad capacity to education and science, makes special pursuits of many departments of knowledge.

> Art thrives most
> Where Commerce has enriched the busy coast;
> He catches all improvements in his flight,
> Spreads foreign wonders in his country's sight;
> Imparts what others have invented well,
> And stirs his own to match them or excel.*

Collisions of interests quicken human energies, and competition animates trade. Sciences, flourishing most in each other's vicinity, the commercial metropolis presents them in their most improved phases. Here intricate positions are prolific in their demands, and necessity is compelled to many ingenuities. Distinction of circumstances and diversities of condition multiply. Partnerships, corporations, and combinations appear. Varieties of avocations advance the public good; affording aptitudes, profoundness, and a lithe emulation to the community. In thus contributing to thrift and enlightenment, Commerce causes an influx of pursuits demanding the guidance of law.

Enactments attend traffic, and lead barter in proper channels. The past presents laws preventing artificers from leaving their country; and native laboring and manufacturing interests (encouraged to independence) have been protected from the crippling power of free foreign competition. Commerce, not being discriminating in its importations, law has been invoked to distribute the useful and necessary, rather than the useless and evil. Vitiated and spurious commodities have been excluded by enactments, and

* Cowper.

duties have been imposed on frivolous luxuries. Commerce thus guarded urges enterprises to diffuse advantageous plenty over the land. Years revolve, and innumerable products of other climes, facilities of comfort, ingenious fabrics and sparkles of invention, are wafted on the wings of trade.

Extreme thirst for riches and love of competition may too adventurously run into speculations. These may drive commercial credit to an unnatural degree; causing excessive supplies to precede demands with consequent evils and miseries. Or, peradventure, the currency or other medium of action, may by ill legislation, prevent ease and regularity of commercial operations. Crises like these are deplorable; yet the history of Commerce is not a stranger to them. The fall of the improvident and prodigal with the imprudent and unfortunate, like the tower of old, is a warning to the surrounding multitude. Having scattered its effects, the crisis passes. Commerce, it may be, influences the passage of a "Bankrupt Law," and, thus disenthralled, pursues the tenor of her way.

Established on a substantial basis, enlivening Commerce vibrates with the pulsations of the nation. Eventually its voice is heard in every avenue of the land—its advantages are secured in every rural retreat—its influence is felt in every department of government. Commerces urges a crusade against uncouthness and all things unseemly; and lays open the radiant pathway of national grandeur. It encourages the neat, the elegant, and beautiful; taking to the highest point the contrivances and inventions that minister to the graces and comforts of life. It caters to the taste fostered by Him who, reigning supreme, has attired his whole creation in countless forms of elegance and beauty; painting the flowers, giving the rose its fragrance, throwing out the arch of the rainbow, tipping the wing of the bird with gold, and filling the air with music. Scientific agriculture, gardening, horticulture, keep accompanying pace with opulent Commerce. Through the influence of Commerce, the temple of Solomon arose; and elegant architecture, painting, and statuary, with the loftiest decorations of national magnificence, owe their amplest conceptions to maturity in this pursuit. The globe is girdled by Commerce; by her the truths of nature are sought. Does she not navigate, discover, explore? Does she not ransack continents, ascend in the air, and dive into the ocean? Does she not penetrate the earth, scale mountains, and traverse deserts? With her are found the myriad commodities of traffic, and the many pursuits of science. By her appear all that is fascinating and wonderful in nature, and all that is curious and beautiful in art: all that human kind has of wit or wisdom, of eloquence or genius, of ingenuity or science. Here we discover the field of nature, the departments of artifice and handiwork, the faculties of mind, explored by the operations of trade, and traced by the regulations of law.

Before Commerce becomes brisk or busy marts engage in enterprises, laws are few. But society in emerging from a simple, natural state, to an artificial and refined condition, brings with it innumerable developments, with corresponding enactments. In adding opulent scope to language,* Commerce throws out a potent influence upon law. "There is no such witness to the degradation of the savage," says Trench, "as the brutal poverty of his language; nor is there anything that so effectually tends to keep him in the depths to which he has fallen." Traffic in its progress meets with terms to which the language was a stranger at its first moldings. Urging

* See vol. xxiv., *Merchants' Magazine*, pp. 174-80.

investigation, eliciting new ideas and acting the neologist, it lights the torch of information and penetrates the recesses of the temple of truth. The language of trade, enriching itself both by terms borrowed from many languages and from novel inventions and discoveries, becomes fluent and voluble in capacity, and fertile and copious in thought. And through these processes, Commerce elaborates the science of law. "Our laws," says Lord Bacon, "are mixed as our language; and as our language is so much the richer, the laws are the more complete."

Maxims and distinctions maintained in a rude and merely gregarious condition, differ extensively from those held by enlightened men under a liberal government. A narrow scope of comprehension or of action, and a paucity of laws are inseparable; while a broad sphere of civil authority and extensive trade possess numerous enactments with many questions for adjudication. Growing transactions with newly arising exigencies, call for adapting statutes; and every flourishing government, in augmenting its pursuits and population, expands the number with the scope of its enactments. Civil and criminal remedies and regulations accumulate and become complex as well in proportion to increasing opulence and population, as to the securities offered to the reputation, liberties, and lives of the people. Where man is active in eliciting every ability and exertion, every truth and knowledge, enactments preside with every check and restraint. Every progression in society evolves new duties, extends refined sentiment, and binds the conscience to respect new rights. Laws are based upon some well established principle of human nature or upon some principle or reason of policy, authority, or mercy, or of decency of balance, or harmony; and though it be maintained that, being simple, but few are required; yet, where mature civilization with varied avocations and copious truths prevail, statutes and authorities will be abundant. Decisions and court opinions being plainly conclusive, it is generally admitted that all laws are founded upon common sense. Yet what is common sense but a judicious application of ascertained principles to things as they are? A populous commercial community is a fertile field prolific in ascertained principles. Its intelligent sovereignty hovers over a ramification of human affairs, which baffles isolated considerations while it guards an intricate collection of interests. Laws and decisions are so numerous that variety may be taken for confusion of enactments; and complicated, for contradictory cases. Hence arise the nice and subtle distinctions so characteristic of the law. A single and apparently trivial fact may qualify, restrain, or enlarge an established rule. Hence, also flows that necessity for perpetual activity of judicial tribunals; and for those multiplying reports of decided cases, which render the law so emphatically an accumulating science.

With trade appear distinct authorities and rules as maritime and commercial remedies. Courts of admirality, guarding rights springing from marine contracts or services, afford their authority; and, having exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction, their sphere is broad while their "process sweeps the seas." The Law Merchant or *Lex Mercatoria*, as a body of usages, is both intricate and vast. Exclusively of currency, credit, and solvency; also exclusively of surety, stocks, trusts, and revenue; matters relating to exchange, shipping, insurance, and the many forms and customs touching the various mercantile contracts show the extent of trade's influence.

Questions continually arise which involve interests of few, and upon circumstances immediately before one; with others involving interests of va-

riously employed thousands, and they scattered over a broad domain. Records of law receive voluminous acquisitions from matters relating directly to Commerce; and the law merchant affords a large proportion of reported cases.

Commerce influences law by fostering national peace. Cotton bales or cannon balls affect nations; as governments, in truth, in their intercourse with one another, know but the two mediums of war and Commerce. Under the benign influences of Commerce, antiquated distinctions break away, local animosities subside; and, though mountains or seas interpose between nations, less enmity prevails with trade, and more reciprocal goodwill. Interests of trade are links of intercourse not easily sundered; they hold the anchors of safety and security, and preserve the archives of science. Interchanges of courtesies and commodities, at home and abroad, add strength to standard authority. Treaties of amity and Commerce resist inveterate spirits of aggression and conflict. During the reign of war and rage of contending arms, Commerce is fettered, and the laws are stifled and mute. Then appear lust, discord, ferocity and carnage; then turbulent passion, belligerent and sanguinary struggles, with the havoc of the sword, usurp the places of peaceful pursuits, and of law and order. Tranquillity of government, and the reign of peace regaining prevalence, agriculture unmolested, presents her cornucopia; and Commerce pursues her march with safety and profit. Law sits, serenely, decreeing judgments; and justice is dispensed to all. Commerce, while encouraging pacific influences, rests on the sword, which prevents destruction of shipping and desolation of coast. Navies, established on enterprises in commercial navigation, guard prosperity, in view of aggression, and maintain vigilant readiness and power for war—the truest safeguards of peace.

Early laws, corresponding with earliest pursuits, were proclaimed by the Divine Legislator. The Decalogue, so plain and so simple, yet so comprehensive, comprises an ample code for the regulation of a rural people, living in a simple state of nature. The early Hebrews were eminently geoponical and pastoral. Society's advancement calls for other and more numerous enactments. When the tables of the laws were handed to Moses, additional laws to those already decreed, were required and bestowed. Maxims and enactments, illustrative and additional, appear with progress of society, as recorded in the sacred volume; and the same observation applies to the primitive Saxons, their brethren on the continent, and the other nations of the earth. Agricultural and military combinations are less intricate than manufacturing and commercial communities; while, where all these are blended in one collection, the laws become necessarily voluminous. Modern constitutions, like ancient systems, framed for the preservation of liberty, consist of many parts. Senates, popular assemblies, courts of justice, and magistrates of different orders, are blended to balance each other, while they exercise, sustain or check executive power. Publicists, legislators, with judges, jurists and jurors, are delegated to frame, enact, elucidate and apply the laws. The complex machinery of government is kept in active operation; freedom and domestic tranquillity are maintained; the common defense and general welfare provided for; and justice and equity preserved and dispensed. Here appear, also, occasions for the development of those influences and features most prominent in distinguishing a nation.

Without alluding to other systems, we will observe the two prominent ones that now sway the destinies of Christendom. We learn, says a

writer,* the art of war from Rome, and maritime affairs from the English. The influence of Commerce appears conspicuously in the varied operations of the Roman and British jurisprudence. The Roman system progressed to a copious depository of legal science. Rome's distinguishing policy, however, was WAR; and her intercourse proceeded directly from forces of her arms. Thus we see the iron cohorts and military sway preponderating, yet, the gaining, in the subduement of other countries, many influences flowing from trade. Commercial Greece captivated her savage conqueror, and introduced her arts among the Romans; while, with extended dominions in the east, Rome's taste for foreign varieties became a passion, and, exacting pay for subjugation, she soon possessed every article that was expensive or luxurious. She deduced laws, through the Greeks, from Crete and Tyre; formed a basis of intercourse and obligation; became mistress of the seas: and acquired the principles which have placed her on an endurable pedestal in the temple of time. Yet, despising and scorning traffic, her polity has never diminished its ardor and aptitude for the shield, nor departed from tameness and timidity in trade. Her literature portrays much of battles; her chief writers and orators were eminent in soldiery. The Roman forum was filled, not by a crowd of mechanics nor mariners, but by warriors; and the imperial system received its meditations from the field of Mars. Without aggression and conquest, therefore, it appears oppugnant and callous, because, in barter it is restrictive and rigid. Catering to a taste to subdue the world, Imperial Rome has continued to throw a way, and infuse a love of arbitrary rule and of war, over Europe, long after her pristine grandeur departed. The most renowned in European science resorted to the fountain of imperial jurisprudence. Its jurists were eminently learned. A religious order, pledged to gravity and austerity of character, with ecclesiastical institutions and the most potent of polemical establishments, combined to sustain and perpetuate the Roman polity; while itself, fixed and affluent, terse yet copious, invaded the judicial systems of Europe, with an influence scarcely less than that exercised over the European dialects and literature, by the Roman tongue. But, with the revolutions and changes of centuries, the more enlightened nations have, by varied courses, transcended free authority of Rome. In modern times, animosity and war among the nations, have diminished, and the principles of the great Teacher of Peace have had greater attractions; the virtues of valor and knowledge of carnage have been less sought; the arm of oppression and the usurper's sword have been less lauded. Subduing conquest, less rigorous against the rights of common humanity, has been, in a measure, superseded by affable exchange. Law has been varied to suit the genius of pacific intercourse and traffic. The spirit of Commerce, alienated from tyranny, exclusiveness, and the majesty of imperial rule, has liberalized the world. Intelligence, no longer locked in the cloister and castle, has been spread broadcast among the people. Superstition has been shorn of its legions. Novel and valuable inventions have appeared; while elevating views have advanced.

Interchange of commodities and intercourse with other countries, augmented the power and enlarged the ideas of the English. Advancing in trade and science, and placed in novel positions, they looked upon the Roman system as too contracted in traffic. In their social relations, in their pursuits, in their literature and science, were conspicuous variations;

* *Von Muller's Univ. History.*

and Rome began to appear as a relic of the past. When the invention of printing, awakened by commercial spirit, commenced to diffuse learning; when the progress of religious information began to be universally disseminated; when trade and navigation were pursued to an amazing extent by the use of the compass; the minds of men, thus enlightened by science, and enlarged by observation and travel, began to entertain a more just opinion of the dignity and rights of mankind.*

The thirteenth century shows the British character to have been molding. Then, out of several races, a distinctive people was rising. The House of Commons, the archetype of all the representative assemblies that now meet, either in the old or in the new world, held its first sittings. The sailors who manned the barks of the Cinque Ports, first made the flag of England conspicuous on the seas; and the common law rose to the dignity of a science, and rapidly became a not unworthy rival of the imperial jurisprudence.† Commerce continued to advance; its scope and energy verged onward, throwing out and establishing theories, and thrilling its way in wider and wider circles. Generation ensued generation, with surprising additions to traffic: and century followed century, with wonderful augmentations of shipping. Plucked from the untraversed waters of the Western Ocean was a hemisphere which attracted the attention of the maritime States across the Atlantic. The policy of the common law being encouragement to trade—England sought with eagerness this new arena for her Commerce. Efforts were succeeded by successes, and commercial enterprises were, for a long time, conceived and consummated with a single view to British interests. Sturdy sinews of America were exerted to elevate the parent country, whose colonial powers, in every direction, were affluent channels of grandeur. Similar courses continuing, the British empire became pre-eminent in commercial importance, and not only the sovereign of the seas, but the wonder of the world. The learned Blackstone conceived, at this period, the plan of his renowned commentaries. Locke had already analyzed the human mind, and Newton, investigated the laws of nature. Though secluded geographically from the rest of the world, the British became commercially ubiquitous; and the sun ceased to set on their dominions. The Commerce and common law of the English, buoyant with science and human rights, arrived together at supremacy.

Long continued prevalence of trade exhibited its palpable traces and footprints. Did not rudeness and barbarity disappear before it? Did it not restrain the exercise of the instruments of military prowess? Were not feudal restraints softened much earlier, and much more effectually for its benefit than for any other consideration? Did it not penetrate the main arteries of the body politic? "Formerly," said Lord Mansfield,‡ "we were not that great commercial nation we are at present; nor formerly were merchants and manufacturers members of parliament, as at present. The case is now very different. Both merchants and manufacturers are, with great propriety, elected members of the lower house. Commerce having thus got into the legislative body of the kingdom, privilege must be done away. ..... Any exemption to particular men, or to particular ranks of men, in a free and commercial country, a solecism of the grossest nature."

The sanguine genius of Commerce differed with Rome, whose course,

* *Commentaries on Law of England*, B. iv. p. 434.
† *McCauley's England*, Harper's ed., Vol. i. p. 325.
‡ In the House of Peers, 1770.

when unobservant of military armor and martial scenes, became excitant and drowsy. Like their system of law, the active principles of religion and liberty espoused by the English, were plainly distinguished from Roman tenets. Translations of the Scriptures, the compilation of the book of Common Prayer, with other means of extensive education, enlarged the intellect of England, infused a taste for knowledge, and led to a flourishing literary era. In the discovery and execution of wise plans to facilitate their progress, the British stepped forth unrivalled by any nation among mankind. Shifting the scenes on the stage of time with energy and force, they presented a grand and cheering exhibition to the survey of the world. The common law, commencing at an early period, and promoted by customs and usages gathered during successive invasions, gradually advanced with progressing enlightenment. Flexible and plastic, it was easily matured and molded by opinions and pursuits. Well adapted to conditions and circumstances, it was inwoven with the favor of prevailing sentiment. Eminent judges avoided or became loth to quote imperial precepts. The Roman law grew more and more into discredit, as the common law operated "as the wheel to the car of Commerce." The age of general intercourse and exchange now dawns. Thought is free. Biblical theology wins attention; discipline in logic and philosophy advance; instruction hurls out ignorance; liberty flashes upon the view; serfdom diminishes; ideas of human rights are disseminated; London, the city of ships, looms up to the wondering gaze; Britannia rules the waves; the world awakes to a knowledge of freedom. The common law fosters trade and a rapid interchange of commodities; the civil law is restrictive of both. The civil law is replete with a by-gone order of things, while the common law is full of freshness and life. The one is of the spirit of the past; the other, of the genius of the present and future. The one, of a nature of quietude and repose; the other, of a progressive and reforming nature.

Commerce found full amplitude in the New World. Earliest colonists, migrating from commercial nations, were accompanied by characteristics of a commercial people, and engaged extensively, from the time of their settlement, in commercial pursuits. European surprise was soon awakened by the maritime plans and intrepidity of the colonists. England looked amazed at the hardy industry of this recent people. Eloquent tributes were elicited by their stalwort energy and daring. In an effort to restrain colonial prosperity, as they clipped the wings of the Dutch navigators, the British met resistance eventuating in American independence. Conspicuously in the celebrated Declaration, appeared the signature of the president of the continental congress—a distinguished commercial character. Want of power to regulate Commerce with foreign nations, was one of the leading defects of the confederation, and, probably, as much as any one cause, conduced to the establishment of the constitution.* The immortal Henry urged that Commerce be unfettered, and portrayed the advantages of swift-winged trade. While many commercial men contributed munificently to sacred and literary institutions, the nearest universal freedom soon spread over the most commercial regions of the land; thus diminishing the hereditary evil of slavery.

In preferring the common law, upon which to predicate a national polity, the Americans deviated from that love for the heroic possessed by the

* *Story's Commentaries on the Constitution of the U. S.*

Romans, and revealed a greater regard for interchange of commodities. The North American Union, like the English, repudiated the doctrine holding trade as inconsistent with Christianity. They could not determine, with Pope Urban II., that it is impossible with a safe conscience to exercise any traffic; nor could the American Republic be induced to favor any Roman tenet in respect to barter. The constitution of the United States laid down the rule by which to regulate Commerce with foreign nations, and displayed for the Union's home trade the broadest basis. These regulations were not long without flattering advantages and encomiums. "Happy Americans!" said a European,* "while the whirlwind flies over one quarter of the globe, and spreads everywhere desolation, you remain protected from its baneful effects by your own virtues and the wisdom of your government. Separated from Europe by an immense ocean, you feel not the effect of those prejudices and passions which convert the boasted seats of civilization into scenes of horror and bloodshed. You profit by the folly and madness of the contending nations, and afford, in your more congenial clime, an asylum to those blessings and virtues which they wantonly contemn, or wickedly exclude from their bosom! Cultivating the arts of peace under the influence of freedom, you advance by rapid strides to opulence and distinction." In his farewell address, Washington offered opinions encouraging to trade, maintaining that "harmony and a liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity and interest." Diffuse and diversify, by gentle means, the streams of Commerce, recommended the patriot, by giving trade a stable intercourse, defining the rights of our merchants, and enabling the government to support them by conventional rules of intercourse—the best that circumstances and mutual opinions will permit. Thus, the Americans have attained and favored the influences of the common law, and thrown to neglect the dicta of the Roman system. "In the one," (the common law,) says a recent writer,† "you see the activity, the throng, the tumult of business life; in the other, the stagnation of an inconsiderable and waning trade. In the one, the boldness, the impetuosity, the invention of advancing knowledge and civilization; in the other, feebleness of intellect, timidity of spirit, and the crouching subserviency of slaves."

A moment's notice, now, of those nations which still adhere to the Roman school, and those that have followed or improved the English system, will reveal the different characters of their Commerce and condition. Excepting Russia and Turkey, the nations on the continent of Europe, Mexico, Guatimala and all those of South America, including the empire of Brazil, maintain the supremacy of the civil or Roman law. England, with her colonies in all parts of the globe, and the United States, excepting Louisiana, adhere to the common law. The Commerce of the civil law is circumscribed by a limited range, and prosecuted in inferior ships; it moves languidly along a few familiar shores, or, if occasionally venturing forth into remoter regions, it is with a hesitating, faltering movement, sluggish in its progress and unprofitable in its results. The Commerce of the common law, with encouraged merchants and superior vessels, enlivens every port and roams over the surface of every sea; urging onward from city, bay and inlet, it pushes its career wherever civilized man can penetrate; girdles the globe in search

* Chas. J. Fox, 1794.
† *Report to California Legislature on the Common and Civil Law.*

of the necessaries and luxuries of life, "and returns laden with the spoils of a ransacked world."

The English, in disregarding the turbid principles of an austere and antiquated jurisprudence, were enabled to suggest and meet the exigencies of advancing science, and to build up a system affording more cheering views and better precepts for the operations of mankind. Inventions and discoveries were vital signs of progress. Rights of humanity, the limits and duty of government and laws of nations, were brought forth and defined. The confederated North American republic, leading on in the path of enlightenment, declared for the highest privileges of the English law, and added a recognition of inalienable rights, everywhere to be acknowledged among men. Through an unexampled solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity and wisdom of conclusion, the United States afford influences, as well in the frustration of the hopes of tyranny as in the advancement of Commerce. To secure fullest authority for trade, and in pursuit of its love for freedom, the sceptre has been wrested from kings: and, in giving its operations celerity, the lightning has been snatched from heaven. The press, the pulpit, the school have been active; the rail car, the steamship and magnetic line have been busy: distance has been abridged; "space has been contracted and shrivelled up like a scroll." The progressive evolutions of trade, and those of its concomitants, are without parallel in history. Legal science has been correspondingly considered and enlarged. The American law system, as well on sea as on land, is broadly presented to the world. "Wherever there is an American ship," says Marsh,* "there is American law." "Especially in its improved and varied condition in America, under the benign influence of an expanded Commerce, of enlightened justice, of republican principles, and of sound philosophy," says Kent,† "the common law has become a code of natural ethics and enlarged civil wisdom, admirably adapted to promote and secure the freedom and happiness of social life." "Throughout the land, and more especially in thirty distinct and independent empires, many of them covering a territory exceeding the limits of the island of Great Britain, this body of law," says J. Anthon, "is subjected to an elaboration of the most expansive character, arising from new social positions, under novel forms of government, demanding equally novel applications of established rules and principles."

Had the voices of valor, with the emblazonry of the shield, still been the most captivating—had the terms of the civil law, impregnated with martial habits, won the primary attention of the people of the American confederacy, and the peaceful pursuits of Commerce been unencouraged—the people of the United States might long have been numbered among the melancholy victims of misguided councils—must, at best, have been laboring under the weight of some of those forms which have crushed the liberties of the rest of mankind. But, happily, "a new and more noble course" was pursued. With the formation of the Constitution of the American Union, appeared an epoch in the history of governments; then arose a monument of wisdom, exhibiting to the study of the world a human record unrivaled in the annals

* "On whatever errand an American vessel may be bound—whether, freighted with Commerce, she links continents together; or laden with provisions, she points her prow to a famishing people; whether she bears the emblems of a nation's progress to a convention of the world, or brings from imprisonment the exiled patriotism of an ancient and heroic race; or, whether in search of some noble and gallant explorer, she rides on icy billows, and inter-penetrates the towering bergs of the Arctic circle; wherever she is and whatever her business—there, on her decks, invisible but commanding, stands erect the majestic form of American law."—*Luther R. Marsh, Esq.*

† James Kent, LL. D.

of the family of man. Then ushered forth the light of genuine toleration and liberty, which, manifesting the spirit and essence of Christianity, elevated individual and social character, and irradiated society with a halo of genial liberality. The knowledge of circumstances, the suggestions of good sense, with the lessons of experience, prevailed over an undue regard for the opinions and habits of other countries, and a blind veneration for antiquity. Under this constitution and form of government—detached and distant from rival nations, espousing no foreign prejudice, entangled in no alliance—the courses of our country have been free, and the scope of her progress extensive. Advancing to a significant position of power, she has successfully buffeted impediments to free developments; and, already superseding Britannia on the waves, promises a grandeur surpassing the ancient as well as modern governments of the globe. While, whithersoever public energy has gone, or to whatever point inventive genius has led, regulating enactments have followed; and with every wave of science, with every verge of enterprise or sovereignty, an o'er-hovering ægis has appeared in our system of law. The accumulating tide of American precedent and example, has tended with impetuous force from the new to the old world; and a polity already appears, destined, perhaps, by its exuberant wisdom, to overspread, with the sway of a freshet, the systems of the past.

A. H. R.

Art. II.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XXXIII.

NEW YORK.

Our design in this article is to present not merely a statement of the absolute condition of the Great Emporium, but by comparison of the various particulars, with corresponding statistics of other cities of the United States, and of other countries, to show her *relative* position, in the several departments, among the cities of the earth—to point out her differences from them, and reveal her peculiar excellencies and deficiencies. Of course, the article, thus constituted, will be also, to a considerable extent, an exposition of the condition, absolute and relative, of the *other cities*, brought into the comparison; and will be in fact, excepting as to some details regarding New York, not followed out in the case of the others, a *Comparative View, in their principal features, of some of the leading Commercial and Manufacturing Towns* on the two continents.

DESCRIPTION OF NEW YORK.

Situation. The commercial metropolis of America stands upon an island, at the head of a bay formed by the junction of the Hudson, or North, with the East River, (a strait, connecting at the other end with Long Island Sound,) and at a distance of about eighteen miles from the Atlantic Ocean. It is separated from the mainland by a winding water-way of eight miles in length, called Harlem River on the east side, and *Spuyten Duyvel Kill* on the west, or North River side. This island, bearing the name of the city,

and called by the Indians Manhattan, is 13¼ miles long, from north to south, with an average width of one mile, 3,220 feet, or 8,500 feet, the greatest breadth being on the line of Eighty-eighth-street—12,500 feet, about 2¼ miles. Its area is about 14,000 acres.

The latitude of the city, reckoned from the City Hall, is 40° 42′ 43″ north, and the longitude west from Greenwich, 74° 0′ 41″, or east from Washington, 30° 1′ 13″.

Its distance from various places, within the United States, by the nearest mail-routes, is as follows:—

Albany.....miles	145	Charleston, S. Carolina....miles	769
Boston.....	207	New Orleans.....	1,428
Portland, Maine.....	317	Buffalo.....	357
Philadelphia.....	87	Cincinnati	723
Baltimore.....	187	St. Louis.....	1,046
Washington.....	225		

Surface. The surface of the upper part of the island is still considerably diversified; the highest point is 238 feet above tide-water. The lower part, the site of the city, was formerly varied with hills and hollows, swamps, ponds, marshes, rocks and acclivities, most of which diversity has been swept away by the hand of improvement. Many creeks and inlets on the margins of the rivers have also been filled up, and a considerable area in the southern part of the city is made-ground, considerably altering the original water-line. The Battery is an artificial esplanade, built upon a ledge of rocks, and a large part of water. Front and South streets, on East River, and Greenwich, Washington, and West, on North River, contiguous to the Battery, were reclaimed from the rivers. Pearl-street, to some distance above Wall, was the original shore of the East River. As improved, the site of the denser part of the city consists of a gentle slope from the center toward either river, Broadway, the principal street, running along the line of the ridge.

Formation. The soil is a sandy alluvion, and less fertile than in many other parts of the State. The basis is principally gneiss, but the north part of the island is composed of granular and primitive limestone, which is quarried, and known as Kingsbridge Marble. The gneiss foundation is covered by a bed of alluvial or tertiary sands, of considerable thickness, upon which lies the diluvium to the depth of ten to eighty feet.

Extent of the City. The city at present extends northward about three miles from the Battery, and covers about one-fifth of the island. The compact portion is over nine miles in circumference. The rest of the island is under cultivation.

Plan. The city was originally laid out without any regularity, the streets being mostly narrow and crooked. The founders had no idea of the destiny of their humble settlement. They knew little of the great advantages of its situation; the vast resource of the interior of the continent was to them as though it had no existence, and had they known of it, their sober imagination would never have dreamed of the artificial river which was to bring down the wealth of that far region. Little did they fancy their sheep-walks were to be the thronged avenues of a mighty trade. Could they have seen the future, even the phlegm of the old Knickerbockers would have yielded to amazement.

The irregularities and deformities of the early period have been mostly corrected of late. After the Revolutionary War, great and systematic im-

provements were undertaken, in view of the anticipated growth of the city. The upper portion of the island was surveyed between 1811 and 1821, and laid out into sixteen avenues, extending from Fourteenth-street in parallel lines, and cut through rocks and hills at great expense. These were intersected, at right angles, by 156 cross streets, running from river to river, and numerically designated, forming squares, varying not much from 200 by 800 feet. In the lower part, beside the improvements before mentioned, a great many streets have been straightened, widened, or extended, at enormous expense. The work is progressing, and in a few years more the whole city will be provided with spacy and commodious avenues. No other city, probably, has made as great expenditure in correcting defects of this nature.

A style of building, combining a high degree of elegance with much enlarged conveniences, has superseded the old methods, and is rapidly supplanting the structures built after them. In the lower part of the city, the old stores and residences are giving way to large and magnificent stores and warehouses, many of them having brown stone, and a few marble fronts. Up-town, the dwellings are mostly built in large and uniform blocks of brick, with ornamented iron railings in front, and make a very pleasing appearance. Some of the private mansions are most elegant structures.

Business Locations. The population principally resides in the upper part of the city, and the lower part is nearly engrossed in the accommodation of business. The principal business portion—that where the great commercial establishments are located—lies within the lines described by the lower end of Broadway, Fulton-street, and the East River. A great part of this section was burned down in the fire of December, 1835, but was soon rebuilt in superior style. Wall-street is the focus of the great monetary operations, that are watched with great interest not only over the United States, but in Europe. Here are the great speculations in stocks, bonds, houses, lands, and other merchandises. It is occupied by the offices of brokers, banks, insurance companies, &c., and contains also the Merchants' Exchange and Custom-House. South-street is occupied by the principal shipping houses, and the offices of most of the foreign packet lines. The dry goods jobbing and importing business, formerly confined to Pearl-street, has extended to William, Broad, Pine, Cedar, Liberty, &c. On Water and Front streets, and the vicinity, are the wholesale grocers, commission merchants, and mechanics connected with the shipping business. Broadway is not less an avenue of business than the promenade of beauty and fashion. It contains the chief bookstores, jewelry, upholstery, hat and cap, tailoring, millinery, retail dry goods, and other like establishments. The hardware trade is chiefly in Platt and Pearl streets, and the leather dealers occupy Ferry and Jacob streets.

Wharves. The water edges of the city are fringed with seven miles of wharves and docks. On each river there are about sixty piers, averaging 200 to 300 feet in length, and 50 to 60 wide. The shipping lies principally on the East River, as being a more secure position than on the other side. The docks are usually crowded with vessels, waiting their turn for the berths.

To furnish the facilities in building wharves, piers, basins, &c., which the increasing Commerce of the city demands, the Legislature, in 1840, chartered the Atlantic Dock Company, with a capital of $1,000,000.

Rivers and Harbor. The width of North River is one mile to Jersey City at the ferry, and one-and-a-half miles across at Hoboken. The width of the East River is one-third to one-half a mile. At the South Ferry it is 1,300 yards—at Fulton Ferry 731 yards—at Catherine Ferry 736 yards.

The bay is from 1¼ to 5¼ miles broad—average 3—8 miles long, and about 25 miles in circumference, forming a basin in which all the navies of the world might ride at anchor in safety. The Bay of New York communicates with Newark Bay through the Kills, in the west, between Staten Island and Bergen Neck, and with another bay, at the south, called the Outer or Lower Harbor, through the Narrows, a compressed strait between Staten and Long Islands. This latter bay opens directly into the ocean. The inner harbor, as well as being one of the best, is also one of the most beautiful in the world. Besides all the natural beauty of the scene, there can hardly be a finer spectacle than is presented in the great city spread before you, with its piers crowded with a dense forest of masts, bearing the flags of all nations—the shipping at anchor in the bay—and the countless steamboats, and vessels of all descriptions, coming and going perpetually in all directions.

Depth of Water and Tides. The currents in the rivers and bay are very strong, keeping these waters open, often, when the rivers and bays much farther south are frozen up. The whole harbor was covered by a solid bridge of ice in 1780, and not again until 1820. Very rarely since has either river been frozen. Last winter the East River was obstructed for a short period, but the North remained open.

The rise of the tides is near seven feet. Going northward the rise increases, and in the Bay of Fundy is 90 feet, the maximum of the coast. Southwardly it decreases, and in the Gulf of Mexico is but 18 inches. The *time* of tide at other places on the coast, or on waters connecting with the ocean, varies from that of New York as follows:—

	Earlier. h.	m.		Later. h.	m.
Halifax, Nova Scotia	2	15	Eastport	2	09
New Bedford	1	40	Portland	1	39
Providence	0	41	Boston	2	19
Sandy Hook	2	45	Holmes' Hole	1	04
Norfolk	0	41	Philadelphia	5	19
Richmond	2	25	Baltimore	5	07
			Charleston	10	19
			Mobile Point	1	54
			Albany	6	34
			Quebec	8	49

The depth of water at the wharves is 6 or 7 feet, and increases rapidly outward. It is sufficient in either river to float the largest ships. At the old channel, on the bar at Sandy Hook, the depth is 21 feet at low, and 27 at high water. That of the new channel discovered by Captain Gedney, in the United States surveys, is at low water 32 feet. The channel inside varies from 35 to 60 feet.

Defenses. The harbor is well defended. The principal works are at the Narrows, which, at the point selected, is but one-third of a mile wide. Here are built, on the Long Island shore, Forts Hamilton and Lafayette, the latter on a reef of rocks, 200 yards from the shore, with three tiers of guns. On the Staten Island side, are Forts Tompkins and Richmond, the former situated on the hights, and provided with a number of subterranean passages. These forts are in excellent condition. The entrance from the Sound to East River is defended by Fort Schuyler, on Throg's Neck. Within the harbor there are batteries on Bedlows' and Ellis' Islands, on the west side of the bay—and on Governor's Island, 3,200 feet from the city, are Fort Columbus, in the form of a star, commanding the south side of the channel;

on the north-west point Castle William, a round tower 600 feet in circumference, and 60 feet high, with three tiers of guns; and a battery on the south-west side, commanding the entrance through Buttermilk Channel.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

DUTCH PERIOD.

Discovery. It is but 243 years since (September 8, 1609,) the intrepid navigator, HENDRIK HUDSON, sailing in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, in search of the long-desired western passage to India, discovered the island of New York—and the little *Half Moon*, with her crew of 20 English and Dutch sailors, passing the island amid the hostile demonstrations of the astonished Manhattans, proceeded up the noble river which yet bears the name of her commander—the first white man's keel that ever divided its waters.

First Commerce. The *trade* of New York had birth in precedence of even her settlement. The Dutch, then in the zenith of their commercial and political importance, and eagerly seizing every opportunity to extend their Commerce, sent a vessel the next year to open a *Fur trade* with the natives. Successful in the enterprise, more ships followed.

Founding of the City. The interest of the Commerce thus established, led first to the *occupation* of the island, and eventually to its permanent *settlement.* And thus did New York, unlike most of the other colonies, whose beginning arose out of religious or political persecution, have its origin solely in *Commercial* interests—the lever by which it has attained its present magnificent degree of bulk and prosperity, and which is destined still to elevate it to a hight almost above our conceptions.

In 1612, a small fort was built upon the lower point of the island, and in 1613 was commenced the settlement of "Nieuw Amsterdam," which the next year contained four houses outside of the fort.

First Conquest. At this interesting period of its development, the embryo metropolis was taken possession of by an expedition from Virginia, under Captain Argal—a name of some mention in the annals of the latter colony. Thus early had the English got a thirst for this Dutch vineyard. But it was soon after restored, by an arrangement under which the Knickerbockers retained the enjoyment of it for a half century longer, and brought it to a condition when it was better worth taking.

First Census. In 1615, the census of New Amsterdam showed a population of thirty souls.

New Netherland Company. For the three years from 1615 to 1618, the exclusive privilege of trading with the Indians was granted to an association formed for the purpose, called "The United New Netherland Company," which prosecuted its object with vigor. The relations of the settlement were widened, and the Commerce of the company extended, by a treaty with the Five Nations, which was inviolately observed by both parties to the end of Dutch power in the New Netherlands.

Special License. Upon the expiration of the charter of the United New Netherland Company, three years more followed in which this Commerce was disposed of by special licenses, granting to individuals the privilege of trading with the Indians.

Dutch West India Company. But this democratic system, in 1621, was supplanted by another monopoly. All rights and privileges relating to

trade in this portion of North America were then by Holland vested in the Dutch West India Company. The management of the affairs of this company in America was intrusted to a Director-General and a council of five, under supervision of their superiors at home; and they also held legislative, judicial, and executive authority within the settlement. Under their administration, in the four years from 1624, the exports were valued at $68,000, and the imports at about $45,000.

Second View of Population. In 1623, completing the first decade of the settlement, the Director-General, commandant, the other officers, and most of the inhabitants resided *within the fort*. Some idea of their numbers may be formed from estimating how many people, after allowing proper room for the dignitaries, could live inside of a small redoubt. The few houses *outside* the fort, at this time, formed the commencement of Pearl-street.

Permanent and Vigorous Colonization Determined on. As yet, colonization had been little in view; but, as the trade grew more profitable, it was resolved to establish a permanent colony, and to carry out a vigorous colonizing system, that should speedily build up an imposing Dutch power in America.

Purchase of the Island. Accordingly, as the initiative in this scheme, the whole island was formally purchased of the aboriginals, in 1626, for the sum of *twenty-four dollars*.

Treaty with Plymouth. At the same period the secretary of the Director-General, who had been dispatched to Plymouth, carrying congratulations, effected an agreement of peace and friendly intercourse with the Pilgrim colony—then six years old—and thus Knickerbockerism and Puritanism shook hands.

Unfortunate Results attending Colonization. Under the stimulus of a charter of peculiar privileges to all who should plant colonies in the New Netherlands, large purchases of country were made by some directors of the West India Company, on North and South (Delaware) Rivers, and Staten Island. But the Indians exterminated a colony in the Delaware valley, and on the other side, the English very quietly robbed them of a tract on the Connecticut River, which the Director-General, Wouter Van Twiller, had purchased of the Indians.

More Misfortunes, Quarrels, Wars, Victories. The English continued to encroach more and more, and in the Swedes arose another enemy on the Delaware. An indiscreet Director-General, named Kieft, not only pushed the quarrel with both, but directed his bellicose disposition also against the surrounding tribes of Indians, which nearly all united in a general war upon the Dutch. Unable to chastise the English, the colony of New Amsterdam revenged itself upon its other foes, rooting the Swedes totally out of America, and "conquering a peace" on several occasions from the Indians.

Progress of Trade, &c. In 1635, the West India Company exported to Holland 14,891 beaver skins and 1,413 otter skins, valued at 134,925 guilders. In the year 1638, tobacco was produced to a considerable extent, and Negro slavery existed. Not long after this began the trade with the Dutch colonies of Curacoa and Guayama, the West Indies, and with Africa.

Democratic Movement. The colony was not behind its English contemporaries in attachment to popular ideas. Gen. Peter Stuyvesant, the ablest and last of the Dutch Governors or Directors-General, found it convenient to yield to the demands of the colonists. A board of nine men was consti-

tuted to represent the people, whose opinions the Governor was to consult on all important matters, and who were to be arbiters in certain civil cases. Subsequent efforts of the same Governor to use certain powers, as attaching to his prerogative, were successfully resisted.

Incorporation. In 1652, New Amsterdam, having a population of about 1,000, received an act of incorporation, and the government passed from the West India Company into the hands of the two burgomasters and five assistants, called schepens, and a schout or sheriff. The same year was the first public school established.

A Dutch Chinese Wall—Origin of Wall-street. In 1653, a wall, composed of earth and stones, was built across the island from river to river, between Wall and Pine streets, whence probably the name of the former. It had a gate in Broadway, called the land-gate, and one at the present corner of Wall and Pearl streets, opening on East River, (then reaching thus far inward,) called the water-gate. It was intended as a defense against the Indians, who continued troublesome, however much whipped.

Census, 1656. In 1656, the city contained 120 houses and about 1,000 inhabitants.

First Wharf. In 1658, the first public wharf was built by the burgomasters, where Whitehall-street now is.

First Map. In 1660, the first map of the city was sent to Holland by Gov. Stuyvesant.

Second English Conquest—Finis of Dutch Power. In September, 1664, a second English invading force, of four frigates and 300 soldiers, under Col. Nichols, appeared in the bay of New Amsterdam, and demanded a surrender, in virtue of a patent to the Duke of York from his brother, Charles II., giving him the whole territory of the New Netherlands, and everything owned by Holland within it. Stuyvesant, an old soldier, who had lost a leg at the capture of Tobago, wanted to fight, but was not allowed. The summons was obeyed.

ENGLISH PERIOD.

Political Changes. Nichols became Governor of the province—the names of province and city were changed to *New York*, in honor of the new proprietor—the style of the city government was altered to mayor and aldermen—and many like Anglican reforms effected.

Financial Measures. The property of the Dutch West India Company was all confiscated, and a tax of 1,200 guilders was extorted from the peace-loving, gain-pursuing people, who had accorded so amiably with the duke's proposals, as their contribution for the support of the ministry.

Post to Boston. In 1673, the post-rider began his trips between New York and Boston, leaving New York once in three weeks.

Population. At the time of the conquest, there were probably about 1,500 inhabitants—in 1673 there were 2,500.

Return of the Knickerbockers. In July, 1673, nine years after the conquest, a Dutch squadron retook the city, and called it *New Orange*. But their coming was only as the visit of a past proprietor to a beloved estate once his. They had only time to look about them, and behold what the ruthless hand of English innovation had done, and what it designed to do, and groan over the vandalism, before they gave it up forever. The next year terminated this brief appendix to Dutch sway.

Trade—Pursuit of the Inhabitants. From the time the city came into

the possession of the English, its trade was rapidly extended, and its importance augmented. The bolting, packing, and exportation of Flour and Meal became the employment of the principal part of the inhabitants, and furnished the most important branch of their trade. The flour was in the best estimation of any made in America.

Sale of Land. In 1675, it was ordered that if the owners of any unoccupied land did not choose to build on it, it might be valued and sold to those who would. In 1676, it was made unlawful to sell liquor to the Indians, and if any person was found drunk in the streets, without knowing where he got his liquor, the whole street was to be fined. No grain allowed to be distilled, unless unfit for other use.

City and Province. It was not until some time after English rule was established that any distinction of city and province appears. But gradually, as the latter expanded, it acquired its own peculiar interests. The first marked distinction we find is in the complaint of the country people against the monopoly of the flour business, secured to the city by law. About 1688, the former made a vigorous effort to obtain an equal privilege in the business, which the city strongly resisted, two-thirds of its people depending for subsistance on the bolting, packing, and exportation of Flour and Meal. In a petition to the council, in 1692, the continuance of the monopoly is asked for, on the ground that "the bolting of flour and baking of bread hath been, and is, the chief support of the trade and traffic of this city, and maintenance of its inhabitants of all degrees. It hath for many years past been an ancient usage." The province triumphed, and a share in the business was yielded to them, with great fears of ruin to the interests of the city.

Streets and Houses. In 1677, there were 12 streets and 384 houses in the city. In 1694, there were 983 houses, and the inhabitants of 600 of them subsisted by bolting flour and meal.

Vessels. In 1683, the vessels belonging to the city were 3 barks, 3 brigantines, 26 sloops, and 48 open boats. In 1685, the shipping had increased to 9 or 10 three-mast vessels, of 80 or 90 tons each, 200 ketches, about 40 tons each, and 20 sloops, of about 25 tons a-piece. In 1694, there were 60 ships, 25 sloops, and 40 boats. In 1696, 40 ships, 62 sloops, and 60 boats.

Valuation. In 1685, the assessed valuation of the city was £75,694, and a tax was laid of three farthings per pound. In 1688, the valuation was £78,231, of which £29,254 was in the South Road.

Abolition of Printing and the Representative System. In 1686, James II., the enlightened proprietor from whose former title the city and province derived its name, displayed his fatherly care of his American possessions by the abolition of the Representative System, and forbidding the use of printing-presses.

Cost of a Charter. The same year the city paid to Governor Dongan, the prefect of its royal patron, £300 for an enlargement of its charter, and £24 to his secretary. The money had to be borrowed.

Wards. In 1688, the following are mentioned as the existing divisions of the city:—North, South, East, West, and Dock Wards, with Harlem and the Bowery.

Leisler. On the deposition of James, in 1689, the people of the city appointed Jacob Leisler, a merchant, as Governor. He was sustained by a military force; and the mayor, with several prominent citizens, although in

favor of William and Mary, retired to Albany. The particulars of Leisler's administration, and his unmerited execution, are too well known to need repetition here.

Congress. In 1690, a Congress of the colonies assembled at New York.

Extent of the City, 1691. Wall-street, then known as Ciugal-street, was *outside* of the city.

First Lighting of the City. In November, 1696, it was ordered that lights be put in the windows of houses fronting on the streets—penalty, 9d. for each night of default; and in December it was ordered that every seventh house hang out a lighted lantern on a pole, seven houses to bear the expense of one light.

Population. The city numbered in 1696, 4,302 inhabitants, of whom 375 were blacks. In 1790, the population was about 6,000.

Position at opening of Eighteenth Century. At this period New York began to attract much attention for the extent of her Commerce. She had become the entrepôt for the northern colonies, whose products were shipped through her to England and the West Indies.

Docks and Slips. In 1701, the docks and slips were rented for £25 per annum.

Slave Market. In 1711, a slave market was established in Wall-street, near East River.

First Rope Walk. In 1718, a rope-walk was built in Broadway, opposite the Park.

First Tariff. In 1720, a duty of 2 per cent was laid on European goods imported. This is the first Tariff mentioned in the history of the city.

First Newspaper. The New York Gazette, weekly, appeared in 1725.

New Charter. In 1730, an enlarged charter was obtained from Governor Montgomerie. As amended by acts of the Legislature, it is still in force.

First Stage Route. In 1732, was established the first stage route to Boston and Philadelphia. The stage left for Boston once a month, and occupied fourteen days on the journey.

Fish in Canal-street. A law was passed in 1733 to preserve fish in Fresh-Water Pond, now Canal and contiguous streets.

Price of Land, 1759. £30 per acre was paid for land in the outer road.

Cost of Light. The expense of lighting the city, about 1770, was £760 per annum.

Cost of Printing. All the printing of the corporation was done, about 1796, for £35 per annum.

Fires. The principal fires of this period were in the time of the negro plot, and the great conflagration of September 21, 1776, soon after the British army took possession of the city. It swept along both sides of Broadway, destroying 493 houses, one-eighth of the whole city.

Epidemics. In 1741–2, the yellow fever prevailed to an alarming extent. No other remarkable sickness is mentioned in this period.

Negro Insurrection—The Blacks Burnt and Hung. In 1712, the Negroes made an insurrection, fired the city in several places, and killed a number of people; 119 of them were executed. In 1741–2, occurred the celebrated "Negro Plot," a much exaggerated affair. Some Irish Catholics were implicated with the Negroes, and 154 Negroes and 20 whites were committed to prison, of whom 85 were convicted and 78 confessed; 13 Negroes were burned at the stake, at the present corner of Chatham and Pearl streets, then out of town; 20 were hung, one in chains, on an island in

Fresh-Water Pond, now occupied by Elm-street; 78 were transported to foreign parts, and 50 discharged.

Houses and Population. In 1730, there were 1,400 houses; 1731, 8,628 inhabitants; 1737, 1,416 houses: 1746, 1,834 houses; 1756, about 2,000 houses, and 10,381 inhabitants; 1771, 21,876 inhabitants: at the opening of the Revolutionary War there were about 4,000 houses, and 25,000 to 30,000 inhabitants, and three years after its close the population was 23,614.

Trade. In 1742, Wheat was quoted at 3s. 6d. per bushel. Coal was imported from England, as cheaper than wood. From 1749 to 1750, 232 vessels entered the port, and 286 cleared out. The cargoes of the latter were made up of "6,731 tons of provisions, chiefly flour, and a vast quantity of grain." In 1755, the export of Flaxseed to Ireland amounted to 12,528 hhds. In 1769, the imports amounted to £188,976 sterling, equal to $839,782—of which came from Great Britain £75,931; from the West Indies £97,420; from the South of Europe £14,927; from Africa £697. The imports for the same year of all the colonies from Great Britain are stated by Hazard at £1,029,519, and the exports thither £673,002—Charleston, S. C., taking of the former £306,600, and furnishing of the latter £387,114.

The Revolution. The trade of the city was much hampered by the oppressive acts of the British government, which led to the Revolution, and a highly exasperated feeling prevailed. When the stamp-act was received, in 1765, an effigy of the Governor, in companionship with one of the devil, the latter holding the stamp-act in his hand, was publicly burned, after parading the streets. A Congress of the colonies met in the city the same year. The merchants joined heartily with those of the other cities in the *non-importation* agreements, and other retaliatory measures. Although Boston was the devoted object of ministerial vengeance, yet when the necessity for the war became apparent, all looked to New York as the point where the most effective blow to the general interests of the colonies could and would be struck. During the occupation of the city by the British army, it suffered much from their vandalism. The public buildings were despoiled; all the churches, except the Episcopal, were desecrated to the use of the army, as barracks, hospitals, riding-schools, prisons, stables, &c.; the schools and colleges were shut up. All the business was of course prostrated, and every interest of the city ground for seven years under an iron heel. With the departure of that army, in 1783, ended the term of English rule and possession.

AMERICAN PERIOD.

Fresh Start. With the introduction of the Third Period in her history, and especially after the adoption of the Federal Constitution, New York took a prodigious start, and has gone forward to this time with an unexampled career.

Position at opening of Nineteenth Century. At the opening of the century the population was above 60,000, having nearly *trebled in the thirteen years* elapsed since the adoption of the Constitution. New York was now excelled in population only by Philadelphia, of all the American towns, and had soon so far distanced all, her Commerce making equal strides, as to stand in a supremacy far beyond all dispute. What a change from the opening of the last century!

Steamboats. The first great event of this period, and of the century, was the success of Fulton and Livingston in their attempt to navigate the North River by *steam.*

Erie Canal. The second was the opening of the great *Erie Canal*, uniting the waters of the Upper Lakes with those of the Atlantic. An immeasurable impulse was received from each of these accomplishments.

The War of 1812–15. The second war with Great Britain, intermediate between them, inflicted a vast deal of injury upon the Commerce of New York, more sensible from the extraordinary prosperity which that interest had reaped through the state of affairs in Europe. But with the return of peace, her ships again carried the national flag to all seas, and she seemed to bound forward the faster for the interruption. Her regular ocean packet lines were soon established, and steam navigation was pushed ahead upon her own and other American waters.

Railroads and Telegraphs. New York has not been inattentive, since the introduction of Steam Carriage upon the land, to the advantages derived from its employment. If other cities have engaged more earnestly in the construction of Railroads, it is because New York already enjoyed equal facilities to what they designed thus to secure. It is impossible, whatever lines of connection may be instituted between the East and West, and the North and South, and however much augmenting the communication between section and section, but that New York, by an expense comparatively trivial, can secure her full proportion of the enlarged business, and maintain her rank against whatever cities that may at present regard themselves in the light of rivals. As to the late invention of the Magnetic Telegraph, she is the grand focus from whence the system radiates to all parts of the Union —the point where the Union centers. The advantages of this great engine of intelligence is, therefore, pre-eminently hers. Of all the other remarkable inventions and growth-advancing ideas of the age, New York has made the most efficient use.

Adverse Events. In this period there has been the full share of public misfortunes. In 1798, the *yellow fever* carried off 2,086 of the inhabitants of New York; in 1805, it returned, destroying only 280, but frightening one-third of the population from their homes, and materially affecting all the interests of the city. Another visit of the destroyer was made in 1822, when 388 died, and most of the district south of the City Hall was vacated. In 1832, that fearful scourge, the *Asiatic cholera*, prevailed, sweeping away 10,359 of the inhabitants. There were destructive *conflagrations*—in December, 1804, destroying 40 stores and dwellings; 15 on Wall, 17 on Front, and 8 on Water streets, with a loss of $2,000,000; in 1811, destroying 80 to 100 houses on Chatham-street; on the night of December 16, 1835, when between 30 and 40 acres of the most valuable portion of the city were swept by the flames—648 buildings were burned, and the loss was not less than $18,000,000; in 1845, destroying property to the value of $7,000,000. In 1837 was the severe *commercial revulsion*, in which the whole country participated, spreading consternation over the land, and involving thousands within the city, as well as thousands without, in the ruin falling upon many of the most wealthy houses of the city.

The Product. Our history terminates in the actual living, moving, glowing *Spectacle* before us—a vision that seems as if conjured up by some of those potent genii, whose wonderful skill and speed in the production of gorgeous cities are related in the Arabian Nights Entertainments. From

following the misty form of the Past, we step before the vivid reality of the Present. The mental Image of what New York was, has brought us to the palpable Substance of what she is. The Page that we have read, conducts us to a Chapter printed upon the earth and water, in the material typography of men, buildings, bales, barrels and boxes, streets, wharves, and the diversified vehicles of land and sea carriage. We read in these clear letters her rank—the city of First commercial importance of this Continent—the Second of the World. We see, too, in both pages, that her foundations are stable—her growth healthy. It is the result of an energy whose depth and elasticity are most wonderful. Nothing destroys or even impairs it. Bad government within—tyranny from without—wars—capture and recapture—the seven years' ravage of a foreign army—conflagrations—pestilence oft repeated—commercial revulsions—the violent intrusion of politics into Commerce—and a vacillating commercial policy in the government—have not been able at all to stay her progress—the check has never outlived the activity of the cause. Who can limit the degree of her expansion, and fix the point, on the attainment of which, she will either take the declining plane, or rest in a maturity incapable of farther development?

Art. III.—THE LAW FOR THE COMPUTATION OF INTEREST.

Probably there is no subject connected with mercantile affairs, respecting which so many questions have been raised, and upon which there have been so many decisions in the civil courts, as that of interest on money.

The courts first began to take cognizance of it about the reign of Henry VIII., of England; prior to that period, the lending of money at interest had been entirely prohibited. By statute of 37 Henry VIII., ten pounds in the hundred were allowed, for the forbearance of one year. During the reign of James I., the rate of interest was reduced to eight per cent.; and, in the reign of Charles II., to six per cent.

It was, however, the statute of 12 Anne which became the general law, still in force in England. This has served as the model for most of the American statutes, which, nevertheless, are much less severe in their penalties. In some of the States, there is still a forfeiture of the whole debt; in others, of the whole amount of interest; but, in others, the loss of the excess of interest is the only penalty of a usurious contract. As a consequence of this uniformity of expression in the English, and between them and most of the American statutes, the decisions made under any one of them have, as a general rule, come to be taken as authorities applicable to all the rest.

The calculation of interest may appear, to many minds, to be so plain and simple a matter, that no doubt could occur with regard to the manner in which it should be performed; and yet, so far from this being the fact, there is no point in the law, as we have already observed, on which questions of more difficulty have been raised, or which still remains in greater doubt and uncertainty.

Of these questions, the three most important may be thus stated: 1. Is the practice of discounting bills of exchange, promissory notes, &c., by taking interest in advance, legal? and, if so, to what extent may it be carried? 2. Is it legal to compute interest according to the rule, that 30

days make a month, and 360 days a year? 3. What is the correct and legal method of computing interest where partial payments have been made, or where there are mutual credits, as upon running accounts?

We do not propose to enter here into an investigation of either of these points, but briefly and summarily to state the course of legal decisions, and the law at present upon each.

Nor can we proceed further without adding to our remarks that importance to which they are entitled, by submitting the source and authority for our statements; this is none other than a work of great magnitude and Herculean labor, entitled "Bartlett's Commercial and Banking Tables."* By way of introduction to the tables of interest, there is an article extending over sixteen quarto pages, which comprises the entire law upon this subject from the earliest period. It has been prepared only by exploring the stores of the most extensive law libraries, after many months' labor, by a most talented member of the profession, and at a cost of nearly one thousand dollars. It is sufficient to say, respecting the merits of this article, that it has received the unbounded approval of some of the highest judicial functionaries of the United States. By the lawyers, its brief sentences will be found to comprise the contents of whole volumes. But it is due to our readers that we should allude to this great work again, hereafter.

Bankers' discount is so called from the practice of bankers, from an early period, in discounting bills of exchange and promissory notes, to deduct interest on the same for the whole time they have to run, in advance. This method of discounting has been repeatedly sanctioned by the decisions of the courts, both in England and this country, and may now be regarded as firmly established by authority. Although the courts have, for a long time, uniformly sustained the practice, they have, however, as uniformly admitted what in fact could not be denied, that it gives more than legal interest. Thus, the decisions have engrafted a rule upon the law of interest which is in conflict with its acknowledged principles. It would be interesting to present the curious reader with the reasons which have, from time to time, been adduced in its support; but this would require too much of our space. We must, therefore, refer him, for them, to the article itself, while we pass to notice the extent and application of this rule, by a brief extract:

"The extent to which this practice may be carried, is not clearly defined. Resting, as it does in a great measure, on authority, the cases themselves will have to be consulted in order to ascertain its limits. Having been introduced for the benefit of trade and the convenience of mercantile transactions, it is said that it will not apply to an ordinary loan of money, but must be confined strictly to the discounting of such instruments as will, and usually do, circulate in the course of trade—that is, negotiable instruments, payable at no distant day. This rule will be found to have been recognized and observed in all the decisions, with the exception, perhaps, of a few of the later American cases. In *Fletcher* v. *the Bank of the United States*, 8 Wheat. 388, the note discounted was drawn at nearly two years from date, and, in its origin, was clearly not intended as a mercantile transaction. In

* *Bartlett's Commercial and Banking Tables*: embracing Time; Simple Interest; unexpired Time and Interest; Interest, account current, Time and Averaging; Compound Interest; Scientific Discount, both simple and compound; Annual Income and Annuity Tables. Equally adapted to the currencies of all commercial nations; The true or intrinsic value of the Gold and Silver Coins and the Standard weights and measures of all commercial countries; Also American, English, French and German Exchange; The Exchange of Brazil and the importation of Rio Coffee. By E. Montgomery Bartlett, Principal of Bartlett's Commercial College, Cincinnati.—Quarto, pp. 375. Publishers, Wm. Phillips & Co., Cincinnati, John Chapman, London.

The Maine Bank v. Butts, 9 Mass. 49, a mortgage was executed to secure the payment of one note for $4,000, in two years, another for $6,000, in three years, and eight other notes for smaller sums, payable at sundry times, respectively within three years. The latter were claimed to be usurious, for one reason: because given for the interest on the larger sums, made payable in advance. And in *M'Gill v. Ware*, 4 Seam. 21, there was a loan on mortgage for five years, and notes executed for the payment of the interest yearly, in advance. The reservation or taking of interest in advance, in two of those cases, was expressly held to be legal, and in the other, it was impliedly sanctioned. It is a question, however, worthy of serious consideration, whether there has been such an extension of the course of trade, with regard to the discounting of negotiable instruments, as will include transactions of this character, and whether they can otherwise be sustained."

The second general question on this subject relates to the legality of computing interest according to the rule, that 30 days make a month, and 360 days a year. There seems to have been some difficulty in arriving at a rule, for fractional parts of a year, combining the requisites of accuracy and convenience. The calculation of interest by days will secure the first requisite, but the second, to a certain extent, is wanting. This fact has given rise to the practice of computing interest by months, when the time was so expressed—whether it consisted of whole months only, or contained the fractional parts of a month—each month being regarded as the twelfth part of a year. But when the fraction of a month was stated in days, the question again occurred as to the manner of disposing of the days; and the difficulty was overcome by treating the days, in this case, as the fraction of a month of 30 days, which produced but a trifling variation from the result obtained by calculating interest on them as days.

This rule, however, was afterwards carried farther. The time, when expressed in days, was, for convenience sake, converted into months; and the year was thus regarded, as containing twelve months of 30 days, or 360 days only.

But this rule has still been extended in practice. Not only has the time, when expressed in days, been reduced to months, according to the arbitrary standard of allowing 30 days to each month, but, when originally given in calendar months, it has first been converted into days, by ascertaining the exact number of days it contains, and that number afterwards divided into months of 30 days, with a view to calculate interest in the manner first stated.

Of these three forms, the first has been claimed to be entirely legal; the third and last mentioned, clearly cannot be sustained by any satisfactory or even plausible reason; the second is very generally, though not universally, employed by business men. Although admitted to be slightly inaccurate, it has been sustained by judicial decisions, and affords room for more serious controversy.

The question as to the legality of this rule, may arise in three different cases, namely: first, upon an instrument bearing interest, in which the time is expressed in days; second, upon an instrument bearing interest, in which the time is expressed in months, or in months and the fraction of a month—the latter being stated either in the form of a fraction, or as so many days; and third, where interest is to be computed from one fixed day to another, as upon an instrument in which the time of payment is specified by a particular day, or upon any sum of money remaining unpaid after it has become due, from the time it becomes due to the time of payment.

But our limits will not permit us to follow this splendid article in "Bartlett's Tables," through the consideration of these points. The decisions of the courts upon them, as they have come up, and the arguments offered, are all alluded to; and to this we must refer the reader, assuring him, especially if he is a member of the legal profession, he will be most amply rewarded for his pains.

The next leading point of the subject, and probably the most important and embarrassing of all, relates to interest where partial payments have been made. The decisions of the courts upon it, are very numerous, and they have presented it in different forms and under a variety of circumstances. These, however, appear to serve rather to bewilder the mind than to throw any clear and reliable light upon the subject.

With some few peculiar exceptions, the decisions arrange themselves into two classes, in which opposite rules are laid down for the calculation of interest, where partial payments have been made, or upon running accounts with mutual credits. This has given rise to what is called the legal and the mercantile method of computing interest, in such cases.

The legal method has finally assumed the form stated by Chancellor Kent, in the case of *The State of Connecticut* v. *Jackson*, in which he says: —"The rule for casting interest, when partial payments have been made, is to apply the payment, in the first place, to the discharge of the interest then due. If the payment exceeds the interest, the surplus goes toward discharging the principal, and the subsequent interest is to be computed on the balance of principal remaining due. If the payment be less than the interest, the surplus of interest must not be taken to augment the principal; but interest continues on the former principal until the period when the payments, taken together, exceed the interest due, and then the surplus is to be applied towards discharging the principal; and interest is to be computed on the balance of principal, as aforesaid."

The mercantile method, on the other hand, which derives its name from the fact that it has, by custom, long been used amongst merchants in keeping their accounts, is this:—Cast interest on each item of debt, from the time it became due to the time of settlement, and add the principal and interest together; compute interest on the several items of credit, in like manner, and add the principal and interest together; deduct the one sum from the other, and carry the remainder to the new account; and proceed in this manner whenever the account is balanced, until the final settlement.

One essential feature of this method is, that rests are generally, once a year or oftener, made in the account, and the balance of principal and interest struck, which is carried to a new account.

In the able article before us, in "Bartlett's Tables," the several law cases are examined which relate to either method, respectively. One or two cases are there noted, in which, under peculiar circumstances, a rule different from either was adopted. The inquiry is then presented, as to how far the law upon this question can be regarded as settled by authority; and the attempt is then made, to investigate the principles by which it is governed, and the propriety of the rules that have been established.

It does not concern us here to notice more than one of these points: it is that which considers how far the law upon this question can be regarded as settled.

In looking over the decisions in reference to the legal method, it is observable, that there is not a single English case in which it has been adopted

or recognized, in the form it has assumed in this country. It will be noticed, also, that the line of separation between the two cases, relating to the two methods, is clear and well defined. Those in which the legal method is established, have, with few, if any, exceptions, arisen from transactions in which partial payments were made upon notes, bonds, &c.; and those, on the other hand, in which the mercantile method was employed, have as uniformly related to dealings with bankers, or between merchants, where there were running accounts and mutual credits.

It appears, also, that in a number of instances, the legal method has been adopted by the courts of the several states, as a rule of practice, merely, and apparently from the consideration that, as some rule must be resorted to in such cases, and as there was no principle involved which, of itself, pointed out one rule rather than another, as the only true and correct rule, they were at liberty to adopt such an one as to them seemed just and equitable.

With reference to the mercantile method of computing interest, it may be considered as settled, that it is not usurious, but may be employed by merchants and bankers in making up their accounts; and that interest so charged, can be recovered where there is either an express or implied contract to pay it;—that such a contract will be implied by law, first, where accounts made up in this manner have, from time to time, been rendered and received, without objection; and secondly, where there is a well established usage of trade sanctioning such a mode of making up accounts;—that receiving and assenting to an account, in which interest is charged in this manner, will amount to an express contract to pay it, which will afterwards be enforced. And that, although in other cases it is not allowable before interest becomes due, to agree that, when due, it shall be converted into principal, and carry interest; yet, in case of running accounts, where there are mutual credits and a fluctuating balance, it is lawful to contract *a priori* that interest shall be computed in this manner.

Our limits will not permit us to notice that portion of this examination, in which an investigation is made of the principles by which this branch of the law is governed, and the propriety of the rules that have been established in connection therewith. We presume there is no professional man who will fail to procure the work; this article alone is worth, to such, many times its cost.

We cannot, however, pass from this subject without noticing a few suggestions which are offered, on the relative merits of the legal and mercantile methods of computing interest.

The legal method discourages prompt and rapid payment on the part of the debtor. At each payment a rest is made, and the oftener he pays, the oftener the interest will be compounded against him. Every payment, therefore, being the occasion of a new compounding of interest, it is evidently to his advantage to delay the payments as long, and make them as seldom, as possible. By the mercantile method, on the other hand, the time of compounding does not depend upon the time when the payments are made, but occurs at regular intervals, without regard to them.

The mercantile method has been uniformly employed almost from time immemorial, by that class in the community who are more interested than any other in establishing a correct rule for computing interest, where partial payments are made—who have more frequent occasion to use such a rule in practice, and therefore have better opportunities of judging of its convenience and justice. Yet, this method is not so favorable to them as the

legal method, where payments are made oftener than once a year. The latter produces a greater accumulation of interest, and would be to the advantage of a person keeping an interest account.

We cannot close this article without some more explicit reference to the great work in which our subject is discussed, and which we regard as the most important and masterly one, of the kind, ever offered to the commercial world. We have before spoken of "Bartlett's Commercial and Banking Tables," but, in that instance, we had only a proof-sheet edition before us; now it is issued complete.

It contains tables adapted to every class of commercial calculations, and all the important legal ones; not only every variety of the calculations of interest and exchange, which ever arise in practice, but discount tables, account current, time and averaging tables, income tables, annuity tables, &c., &c., adapted to all currencies of the world. For accuracy and ease in the application, they have received the unlimited approbation of eminent commercial bodies and distinguished bankers and business men.

Now, a moment's reflection must satisfy every one, that here is a standard in conformity with which all the commercial calculations of the civilized world can be made. Such a uniform standard would at once produce harmony in all accounts; questions of accuracy could be solved at once; the diminution of labor among accountants would be immense; while employers would be far better served than at present.

It is this point which we regard of sufficient importance to press it upon the attention of commercial men. The work before us is amply worthy of such high distinction. It is a quarto, of nearly four hundred pages. The law of interest is only one of numerous commercial points explained in it. We say the work is worthy of this high honor, and we might quote, in proof of the correctness of our assertion, the words of some of the most eminent bankers of our country:—"The work is original in every particular, worthy of unlimited confidence, and richly merits universal patronage." But our object is not to extol the work; we desire to awaken the interest of those who have not seen or examined it, and to assure them it is a matter highly worthy of their investigation, and which will certainly afford them much satisfaction, if it does not in the end become a source of advantage or profit.

Art. IV.—OUR METALLIC CURRENCY.

PHILADELPHIA, June 15, 1852.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Conductor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*

DEAR SIR:—Some views on the currency having been lately put forth by a writer in the *National Intelligencer*, of Washington, which appeared to me at once plausible and erroneous, I thought it best to answer them in that journal; but as my speculations on this subject have been frequently given to your Magazine, I wish these also to find a place there, for which purpose I now inclose you a copy, with some small corrections and additions. Whether they shall be verified or contradicted by time, I wish them to be there recorded.

The remaining numbers of your Magazine, from the tenth volume, I should be glad to get. As a work of reference on American statistics it is invaluable, and our country affords no substitute for it. I am, very sincerely, yours,

GEORGE TUCKER.

OUR METALLIC CURRENCY.

Among the speculations which have lately appeared in the public journals on the subject of our metallic currency, it is gratifying to find that they nearly all agree in recommending a single standard; a conclusion to which all the best reasoners on the subject of money had arrived for more than a century, though few nations have acted on it, from a mistaken apprehension that if either metal was not a legal tender it would cease to circulate as currency.

This is a great point gained in the advancement of sound theory on the complicated and much-mooted subject of money. But, supposing we adopt a single measure of value, which shall it be, silver or gold?

Though the reasoning on this question is not quite as conclusive as on that of a single or double standard, there appears to me to be a great preponderance of argument in favor of silver.

Besides that the silver dollar is the general money of account, and is the popular standard by which the value of gold and of everything else is measured, gold seems far more likely to alter in value. This metal was once thought to be less liable to fluctuation than silver, for the discovery of America had reduced its value only to *one-third*, while it had reduced that of silver to *one-fourth*; but now we have every reason to believe that it is destined to a more rapid depreciation than either metal ever before experienced.

In the early part of this century, before the Russian mines yielded much gold, the whole quantity of that metal annually produced in America and Europe was not supposed to exceed fifteen millions of dollars. Nor was the average annual product of all Spanish and Portuguese America, at any period, according to Baron Humboldt, more than twelve millions. But the Russian, Californian, and Australian mines now yield six or seven times as much as America and Europe produced thirty years ago, and bid fair to yield ten times that quantity.

There is in every civilized community a large class of contracts which endure for a long series of years, and as to these it would be desirable, for the sake of doing justice to both parties, to have an unvarying standard of value; but this, from the unceasing fluctuations of supply and demand in the precious metals, as well as everything else, is impossible; yet we should come as near to it as we can. Gold and silver have been universally preferred for this purpose, because their changes are slower and more gradual than those of other commodities; and, for the same reason that they have been thus used, we should select the one as the standard which is least likely to change.

If gold should so depreciate as to reach the proportion which it bore to silver before the discovery of America, and had held for more than two thousand years, that is, at about ten to one, then the holders of perpetual ground rents, of public debts, and of all fixed dues in money, would lose one-third of what they had contracted to receive.

Some may be disposed to doubt this depreciation of gold, since the great

quantity yielded by California has scarcely yet produced a sensible effect; but it must be recollected that the quantity, great as it is, does not yet bear a considerable proportion to the quantity that was previously in circulation; and that before these large recent accessions there was an inadequate supply of the metal, which was manifested by its gradual rise of price. But when the quantities drawn from California alone, to say nothing of the products of the Ural Mountains, Siberia, Australia, &c., shall double the quantity in the world, as it bids fair to do, the price must inevitably fall. As the amount of other commodities will remain nearly the same, or will increase in a far less ratio, either the value of gold must fall or it must cease to be used. Since this last alternative is inadmissible, since not one man in a thousand hoards away specie, we must of necessity adopt the first. Indeed, when we see that a large addition to the supply affects the price of everything else, how can it be supposed that gold alone is not obedient to this universal law?

But a writer in the *Intelligencer*, under the signature of "An Observer," objects to silver as the standard on two grounds:—One, that it will impair the obligation of contracts: and the other, that it will occasion too heavy a charge on the Treasury. Let us examine these objections.

The adoption of silver as the sole standard will, according to the view I have taken, so far from impairing the obligation of contracts, tend to prevent, or at least to lessen, their violation. Let us look at the source and extent of these obligations. Contracts ought to be fulfilled, because policy, justice, and honesty enjoin their fulfillment; but when their execution is inconsistent with these conditions, the obligation ceases. The law refuses to give its sanction to contracts to violate law, or that are made in bad faith, or when made with incompetent persons, &c. But a contract made to pay so much money is substantially one to pay so much *value*, in human labor, food, and raiment, which money is meant to represent; and this contract is essentially violated if the debtor pays his creditor but two-thirds of his debt, or anything less than the whole value he stipulated to pay. To say that the debtor has the right to pay the pieces of money he contracted to pay, however they have depreciated, is to say that he has a right to do wrong.

It is true that, under ordinary circumstances, the parties may be considered as agreeing to run the risk of those small and gradual alterations in value to which the precious metals have always been liable, but when they exceed that limit it is not honest nor just that either party should profit by the letter of his contract to violate its substance; and Legislatures, in the exercise of one of their highest attributes, will prevent such injustice, by rendering the metal that is in a course of depreciation, no longer a legal tender.

But, it is urged, when both metals were legal tenders at the time the contract was made, the debtor had the right to pay in either metal; and that this right to pay in the one that has fallen in value might have been taken into consideration by the parties when the contract was made, and the debtor, having thus paid the price for this advantage, it is not just to deprive him of it. The argument would be fair if this were the sole contingency contemplated; but there was another and a very important one on this question, which is, that it was competent for the Legislature at any time to change the law of legal tender, and, for the furtherance of public policy or justice, to alter the proportionate values of these metals, and have two standards instead of one, or one instead of two. Every nation has co-

casionally done this, and it has been done more than once by the United States. These changes have been made under the power given to Congress to regulate the value of coin, and no alteration has been made, or can be made, that does not lessen the legal value of one metal or the other, and so far serve to affect the property of those who hold coins of that metal. Thus, when, by the act of 1837, the gold eagle, which had previously contained 247½ grains of fine gold, was required to contain but 232½ grains, the government undertook to give its creditors less gold for ten dollars by fifteen grains than its coins had previously promised. As to the greater part of these fifteen grains the law did no injustice. It merely conformed to the market prices of these metals; but the same thing may be said of the change I propose, and the government has the right, in common with every one else, to make its payments in conformity with that change.

The second objection of "An Observer" is, that the adoption of silver would occasion a great loss to the Treasury. He assumes that the government, having coined eagles and stamped them as being worth ten dollars, could not, without a breach of faith, receive them for less; but that in paying them away they must be passed at what they are fairly worth in the market, and thus the loss by their depreciation would fall on the Treasury.

To this objection there are two answers. In the first place, when the government coins gold, and stamps on it its equivalent in silver, it does not guaranty that it shall always be worth the same quantity. It gives no such insurance. It is merely responsible for the weight of the coin, for the degree of purity required by law, and for the value at the time. It undertakes no more. Its functions are analogous to that exercised in its inspections for flour; it ascertains and certifies the quantity and quality, and leaves the future price to the uncontrollable arbiter of prices—the market. It must be remembered that the State does not go abroad to purchase the bullion for the mint, but merely coins that which individuals choose to bring to it, to benefit themselves by the manufacture into coin, which, moreover, has hitherto been gratuitous. All the gold which the mint has ever coined has been procured in this way; there is, then, neither reason nor justice in supposing a gratuitous insurance added to a gratuitous coinage.

But, in the second place, if the writer was correct in his premises, they would not warrant his conclusion. It is admitted that, in paying its creditors, the government cannot rate gold beyond its market price, but it is perfectly immaterial whether it *receives* it at its original or depreciated rate. To make this clear, let us suppose that the annual wants of the government are fifteen millions of dollars, and that the proportion of value of gold to silver is at fifteen to one. In this case, supposing the public revenue equal to the expenditure, the Treasury must receive fifteen millions in silver, or one-fifteenth part of the same quality in gold, its equivalent; and whether the gold coins be received at one rate or another—whether an eagle be called one dollar or one hundred dollars—is as unimportant as the *name* of a rose is to its sweetness.

Thus, too, in the case put by "An Observer" of an eagle being worth in the market but $9 50, it will be the same thing both to the tax-payers and the government whether the eagle be received at $10 or $9 50. If at the higher rate, then, as every one will pay in gold, the taxes must be raised 5 per cent (or rather $\frac{1}{19}$) to make the real equal to the nominal amount of the revenue. The Treasury will then have the same amount as if the revenue were paid in silver, or gold at its market price, and it will be the

same thing to the tax-payers whether they pay in silver or gold. All that they would gain by passing the gold at more than it was worth, they would lose by the additional tax.

The public, therefore, supposing it to have common sense, would not object to the government receiving gold at the same rate at which every one else received it, that is, at its fair market value; and though it did object, and the objection were respected, the State could neither gain nor lose.

I have thought it worth the trouble to take this notice of "An Observer's" objections to silver as the sole standard, because those objections are spacious and well stated; but, judging from one or two passages in his articles, I infer that, whatever may be his other attainments, he is not very conversant in this branch of political economy—certainly not in its history. He supposes that in 1700 the precious metals were worth three or four times as much as at present. Now it is generally admitted that they had attained their utmost limit of depreciation some fifty or sixty years before. Adam Smith, indeed, thinks that from 1700 to the time he wrote, about 1775, silver had slightly *risen* in value; and supposing him mistaken, there is no reason to suppose it had fallen. After the disturbances in Spanish America, in 1810, by which the mines were for many years less productive, the price of both had unquestionably risen, and some suppose that they have hardly yet fallen to their former level.

For the preceding reasons I feel anxious that Congress should adopt a single standard, and make that standard silver.

Mr. Hunter's bill, which has passed the Senate, will indeed furnish a temporary remedy for the scarcity of silver now felt, but the objection to it is, that *it is temporary*. By the adoption of a single standard the remedy would be as lasting as efficient. T.

Art. V.—THE LAW OF PROGRESS IN THE RELATIONS OF CAPITAL AND LABOR, &c.

It has become apparent that the controversy between Mr. Sulley and myself may as well be brought to a close. It can possess no interest for the public, farther, than we are respectively the representatives of great schools and systems of Political Economy. I understood him in the outset to hold such a position, and to come into the field prepared to defend the views of Malthus, Ricardo, and the modern English Economists. He was indignant that "the great men who have written on Political Economy since Adam Smith, should be set aside to make room for Mr. Carey," and appeared as their champion. I proposed to make good the defense of Mr. Carey out of the mouths of the very persons whose superiority Mr. Sulley sought to vindicate. I cited with this object Adam Smith, Malthus, Ricardo, M'Culloch, and John Stuart Mill. In his reply, Mr. Sulley overruled their testimony. "It matters little," said he, in September, "what Smith, Ricardo, M'Culloch, and Mill conceded—that would not make a proposition true if it were originally false." Doubtless; but it might help to determine whether it was true or false, and whether Mr. Carey or myself were to be impeached in their names, and summarily smote down, for contempt of those whom the

world has agreed to regard as great teachers in this department of inquiry. Inasmuch as Mr. Sulley only indicated his great men in general terms, without naming them, and was at liberty to say, if I should call any new witness, that they were not the persons he had in mind, I distinctly invited him in your November number to specify who he meant, and pledged myself to go to them for my citations. I showed in this the truest respect for the Economists as a body, by announcing my belief that they contained sufficient truth to furnish a corrective for their own errors. I went further, I challenged him to name any single one, and proposed to refute him by that one; and in reference to the general question took upon myself the task of showing that there is not a single one who has not made fatal concessions and been betrayed by the necessities of a false system into flagrant inconsistencies. This was bold enough to be exposed to the imputation of arrogance. It courted chastisement from a man whom I supposed able to inflict it, if I was in error, and very willing to do so if he could. He had shown no mercy to Carey whom he had *not* read, how should I, whom he had read, escape simple justice? No man would have pitied me in my discomfiture.

Whether because I am right, or because Mr. Sulley cannot show that I am wrong, he declines the issue. He tells us in your April number, that "it would be more to the purpose, if my opponent could show that my facts and theories are inconsistent in themselves, than to trouble himself whether they agree with Smith, Ricardo, &c., or whether they agree with me." But I did not undertake to discuss the correctness of Mr. Sulley's opinions, except in so far as they are those of the Ricardo school, or derived from them. Error in those men is mischievous, because it derives credit from the deference paid to great names—because multitudes rely on their guidance, and because we can never present an argument in behalf of the protection system, without having their authority appealed to, as settling the question against us. There are hosts of practical men who take it for granted, so often and so confidently do they hear the Economists cited as having disposed of the point forever, that they must discredit the science and its teachers as merely visionary. These men suffer their sons to be taught the doctrines of Ricardo and his school in our colleges, with as little apprehension apparently of their exercising a permanent control in their opinions, as they have of their imbibing a belief in the heathen mythology from the classics. In this they err greatly. It is a great object to make them see that the most vital interests hinge upon the point, which they are apt to regard as purely speculative, whether men commence the work of cultivation upon the rich soils and proceed to the poorer, as population and capital increase, or begin upon the inferior soils, and pass to the occupation of the more fertile, as the increased power of associated labor, and the acquisition of capital enable them to do so. It was for this purpose mainly, that I addressed a communication to your Magazine; it was also my object to show, that the question having been solved correctly by Mr. Carey, the science of Political Economy constructed by him upon the basis of *fact*, instead of the plausible fictions which Malthus and Ricardo assumed, was entirely competent to account for, and explain the history of human progress. "In order"—says Mr. Mill, in his Logic, quoting Comte—"to prove that our science and our knowledge of the particular case render us competent to predict the future, we must show that they would have enabled us to predict the present and the past."

I brought the science of Carey on the one hand, and the hypothetical

dogmas of Ricardo and Malthus on the other, to this test. I admit the logical power of the latter to the fullest extent. The fault is in their premises. These granted, their conclusions follow—prove them inevitably. I know no other class of writers who pursue their inferences to their full logical extent, and stand to them so unflinchingly. So much the more are they stumbling-blocks in the road to truth. So much the more was it worth while to discuss what is due to their pretensions, especially to one who fancied he could make it evident that he knew and appreciated them. Whenever Mr. Sulley becomes the *tenth part* as formidable an obstacle to the spread of correct views, as they are, he will find plenty of abler opponents than myself, ready to contest his notions *per se*, without troubling themselves whether they agree with Smith, Ricardo, &c. Meantime I must decline the effort. What the case of the English Economists is, I thought myself able to understand and to meet, for it is extant in print, and I was willing to argue it with him as counsel in their behalf, but when it comes to his own untold fullness, I leave it to men of more courage and endurance.

For there is yet another difficulty which I could not overcome, even if his self isolation from the great men, in matters of reasoning, did not remove the inducements for discussion. He holds authority in quite as little esteem in regard to matters of fact. I cited some very interesting tables from Moreau de Jonnes, to establish the facts that the agricultural production of France had, in the last one hundred and fifty years, increased twice as much as the population, the first having quadrupled, while the second has doubled—that the *proportion* of the entire product going to the laborer, has risen from 35 per cent to 60,—that notwithstanding this increase in the proportion of the laborer, the total product is so much enlarged as to leave a larger *amount*, though a less proportion, to the capitalists and non-agricultural classes—they having increased 100 per cent, while the surplus left, after giving the agricultural laborers their enlarged proportion, has increased 127 per cent. These statistics Mr. Sulley thinks "no person who glances over them with the eye of a critic, will consider of the least weight."

The fact that Moreau de Jonnes, the highest statistical authority in Europe, has been occupied, with persevering pains, twenty-five years, in collecting the materials for his tables, "from historical, economical and administrative documents," shows to Mr. Sulley "at once that no dependence can be placed on them. The official position of De Jonnes in that period, his precise duty, indeed,—for he is at the head of the department of statistics, in that nation which more than any other in the world excels in such inquiries—has given him such means of information as no other man ever possessed. A nation which has half a million civil officers to collect statistics for it—whose franked letters to and from the executive departments rose in the year 1843 to the number of 16,363,956, equal, comparing their weight with the mean weight of the letters of individuals to 130,529,450 single letters*—whose system of centralization is such, that the ministry at Paris may be said to have a finger in every business transaction in France—can obtain reliable statistics, if the thing is possible. De Jonnes had no theory to support like that under our consideration, and there is nothing tending in the slightest degree to convict him of prejudice. Moreover, his statement has been be-

* Report of M. Chegary to the Chamber of Deputies on Postal Reform, 5th July, 1844, quoted in *Journal des Economistes*, for January, 1859.

fore the Economists of France, some two years, without contradiction. It was read before the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in January, 1850, as I infer, from a notice of it by the Paris correspondent of the London Times, on the 17th of that month, a memorandum of which I found within a few days, that I had preserved. Now, if I cannot avail myself of the authority of De Jonnes upon a matter not of estimation but of well sifted statistics, for so he puts it forth, then it is vain to expect any authority would establish a fact to the satisfaction of Mr. Sulley, when it runs counter to his preconceived opinion. He having made up his mind that it is impossible the laboring population of France can ever have been worse off, than they are now described by Blanqui in the extract I furnished, of what avail is it to cite the following description, in the quaint words of Fortescue, of their condition in the 15th century :—

" 'Thay drynke water, they eate apples, with bred right brown made of rye. Thay eate no flesche, but if it be selden, a litill larde, or of the entrails, or heds of beets sclayne for the nobles and marchaunts of the lond. Thay weryn no wollyn, but if it be a pore cote under their uttermost garment, made of grete canvas, and cal it a frok. Their hosyn be of like canvas, and passen not their knee; wherefor they be gartrid, and their thyghs bare. Their wyfs and children gone barefote; thay may in non otherwise lyve; for sume of them, that was wonte to pay to his lord for his tenement, which he hirith by the yere, a scute, payyth now to the kyng, over that scute fyve skuts. Wher thrugh they be artyd by necessitie so to watch, labour, and grub in the ground, for their sustenaunce, that their nature is much wastid, and the kynd of them brought to nowght. Thay gone crokyd and ar feble, not able to fyght, nor to defend the realme; nor thay have wepon, nor monye to buy them wepon withal; but verely thay lyvyn in the most extreme povertie and myserye, and yet thay dwellyn in one the most fertile realme of the world.' "

He seeks to prove the facts of De Jonnes, no-facts, by the argument, that "while the crops have increased relatively to population one hundred per cent, the prices of grain have also slightly increased, showing that the demand has fully kept pace with the supply; therefore, this quadruple increase of the crop is a chimera." Well, would not the demand have kept pace with the supply, if each man consumed twice as much as before, as De Jonnes avers they do, having more than three times as much wages to buy with? What other testimony can I produce that may not be argued down in the same fashion?

Mr. Sulley's theory requiring that the laborers of England should be in a worse condition than one hundred years ago, of what avail is the testimony of Mr. M'Culloch in his last book, on the circumstances which determine the rate of wages, published in November, 1851?

Their condition, says M'Culloch, is greatly changed since the American war; the people are now better fed, better clothed and better lodged than at any period of the past. We know that Lord John Russell said, in 1844, that the labouring classes had retrograded since the last century. But in spite of the respect due to so high an authority, we remain convinced that his assertion is not justified by the facts. The greater part of the objects of consumption are at as low a price now as in 1740, and many, like the articles of clothing, are obtained cheaper, notwithstanding the well founded complaints which the unhealthy habitations of the working class have excited, they are better lodged than during the past century or at any former period.

The oldest houses in our cities and towns are precisely those which offer to the poor the most detestable quarters. The bread now consumed by the poor is of a superior quality, and in the cities at least, the workmen use a greater quantity of butchers' meat. Drunkenness and immorality, if they have not materially diminished, have made no sensible progress. The manners of all classes have improved in humanity and kindness. The extraordinary progress that has been observed in the health and longevity in the population, attest a real amelioration in the lot of all.*

I might show that this opinion is not a recent one with Mr. M'Culloch, nor is it confined to the condition of *English* laborers. So long ago as 1838, when he published an edition of the Wealth of Nations, he said in one of the notes:—"Let any one compare the state of this, or *any other European* country, 500 or 100 years ago, and he will be satisfied that prodigious advances have been made, that the means of subsistence have increased much more rapidly than the population, and that the laboring classes are now generally in the possession of conveniences and luxuries that were formerly not enjoyed even by the richest lords." In another note he states, that notwithstanding the great increase of population since 1770,—more than 8,000,000 in Great Britain, exclusive of Ireland—"the population is now incomparably better fed than at any former period, consuming a much greater quantity of wheaten bread and butchers' meat," which he shows was furnished by their own soils—and so far from believing that the limit had been attained, he believes "it may safely be affirmed, that were the whole island as well cultivated as East Lothian, Berwickshire, Northumberland, Lincoln, and Norfolk, its produce would be at least doubled." This increase was obtained with a continually decreasing proportion of the number of persons engaged in agricultural labor—the consumers increased more rapidly than the producers, and the crops more rapidly than both. So strongly was Mr. M'Culloch impressed by the facts, that notwithstanding he was the authorized exponent of the same opinions professed by Mr. Sulley, holding the chair of Ricardo lecturer, he was obliged to say, "The presumption seems to be, notwithstanding the rapid increase of population, that the prices of corn in England, in ordinary years, will at no distant period be reduced to a level with those of the continent."

The reason of this, as I contend is, in the language of Mr. Carey, because POPULATION MAKES THE FOOD COME FROM THE RICHER SOILS,—and, securing the consumption of the products of the land upon the land, it furnishes in the immediate vicinity the refuse, by the application of which the poor soils are made rich. In the cases when the transportation from a distance is necessary, a dense population is able to provide the machinery of cheap transportation, which a poor one must go without. The condition of farmers in a sparse population, in reference to fertilizing agents, may be seen in any of the slave states. In a letter of Wilmot S. Gibbs, of Chester District, South Carolina, to the Commissioner of Patents, to be found in the Agricultural Report for 1850–51, page 237, the difficulty is stated by one of the sufferers: "The breadth of land we cultivate, and the few cattle we are able proportionably to keep, seems to paralyze efforts..... Plaster which could be had in Charleston at $5 the ton, would cost $20 more to bring it up here. *We could buy three acres of fresh land for what it would cost to*

* This quotation may not correspond word for word with the text of Mr. M'Culloch, which I have not seen. It is retranslated from the French, into which it was rendered by Leon Faucher, in a review of the book in the *Journal des Economistes*, for April, 1852.

lime one." So it is that fresh land is constantly required, and the smaller the population is, upon a given area, the more the land becomes insufficient for their support, for instead of any being improved, successive portions are continually exhausted, and abandoned.

But it is obviously vain to seek for causes, unless we can agree upon the facts to be explained. I have in all cases gone for testimony as to facts, to those writers whose prejudices were all upon the side of Mr. Sulley. If he is not satisfied with them, I may as well forego all expectation of convincing him.

The questions which I should have been glad to discuss as preliminary to that of Protection, have an independent interest. An interest to many higher than that of Protection.

Mr. Sulley regards the principles which Mr. Carey has enunciated as the laws of Distribution, as necessarily leading to what he deems the heresy of Protection. Mr. Carey certainly published and demonstrated them in 1838–40, without any such intent. I know no impropriety in my mentioning that, within the last six months, I have seen a letter from an English author, whom I have quoted, and who is in high standing with the advocates of free trade, according to Mr. Sulley's acceptation, to a very distinguished American Protectionist, in which he commends the study of Bastiat's *Harmonies Economiques* to his correspondent, as likely to convince him of his error.

He would have commended Carey's Principles of Political Economy, if he had happened to know that they were the original mine from which Bastiat procured his materials, and had he done so, it would scarcely have made the joke richer. Bastiat himself seems to have died without becoming sensible that he was in the road to Protectionism. There was room to hope that a more dispassionate consideration than the question of Protection would obtain, might be secured for a problem of wider scope—the problem which seeks to determine whether human progress, physical, intellectual, moral and political, is an accidental and anomalous fact, or whether it is the result of natural laws, universal in their application, and eternal in duration. It is the problem of the age. Take the following summary of the questions now stirring the hearts of men, from the *Westminster Review*, for April, 1852.

The great social idea now prevailing in Europe may be thus defined; the abolition of the proletariat; the emancipation of producers from the tyranny of capital concentrated in a small number of hands; re-division of productions, or of the value arising from productions, in proportion to the work performed; the moral and intellectual education of the operative; voluntary association between workmen gradually and peacefully, as much as possible, for individual labor paid at the will of the capitalist. This sums up all the reasonable aspirations of the present time. It is not a question of destroying, abolishing, or violently transferring property from one class to another; it is a question of extending the circle of consumers, of consequently augmenting production, of giving a larger share to producers, of opening a wide road to the operative for the acquisition of wealth and property—in short, of putting capital and the instruments of labor within reach of every man offering a guaranty of goodwill, capacity and morality. These ideas are just, and they are destined eventually to triumph; historically, the time is ripe for their realization. To the emancipation of the *slave* has succeeded that of the *serf*; that of the serf must be followed by that of the *workman*.

In the course of human progress, the patriciate has undermined the despotic privilege of royalty: the bourgeoisie, the financial aristocracy, has undermined the privileges of birth; and now the people, the workers, will undermine the privilege of the proprietary and moneyed bourgeoisie; until society, founded upon labor, shall recognize no other privilege than that of virtuous intelligence, presiding, by the choice of the people enlightened by education, over the whole development of its faculties and its social capabilities.

Observe first, that in respect to the past, the privileges of birth which have been undermined by the financial aristocracy are precisely, the *landlord* privileges, those connected with, and growing out of the ownership of land, whether in the nobility or the squirearchy. In regard to the aspirations for the future, as set forth by the *Westminster Review*, we can differ as to those which regard *instrumentalities*, the abolition of the proletariat for example, or the abolition of work for wages paid in gross, and without the laborers taking a share in the *risks* of the market, for the thing he works upon without its involving any difference in regard to the *ends* "of giving a larger share to producers, of opening a wide road to the operative for the acquisition of wealth and property," &c. These ideas *are* just, and they *are* destined to triumph. They obviously represent only further and advanced stages in the same path of progress, which we can trace backward in the past. The laws which governed the motion of the race in that path thus far, will produce motion in the same direction for the future. *If there are such laws.* If, on the contrary, what progress the race has heretofore made, has been *in spite* of the tendency and effect of the natural laws—and this is what those who follow Ricardo and Malthus believe—then further progress must be obtained by the invasion of those laws—by artificial reorganization of society, by revolution.

Let us see now, if we cannot discover the law of the past, and whether it does not demonstrate the harmony of interests in all classes, instead of any discord, and show that the elevation of the laborer has resulted in the past, as it will in the future, from a co-operation between him and the capitalist, and not from strife—co-operation which neither could prevent or ever can prevent from inuring to the benefit of the other, but in largest measure, nevertheless, to the weakest party.

And first, as to wages. Here it is thought, is the beginning of discord, so much and so necessarily so, that the abolition of wages is the first idea upon the programme of the *Westminster Review*. But our doctrine is, that the rate of wages is the index of the productiveness of labor. Cheap labor is not got by low wages, but by high.

The laborer must receive his wages out of the price of the product of his toil, which, other things being equal, depends on its quantity. The larger this, the greater the fund for his payment. Whether administered by the capitalist, as when he hires labor, or by the laborer himself, as when the latter hires capital, the wages will vary according to the residuum left, after paying to the representative of capital, the share in the product which is due to its aid. Thus much for the *power* to pay wages. In respect to the motive, it requires little observation to learn that the human machine executes work upon the same conditions as the steam-engine. To obtain the maximum effect from the inanimate agents, we feed it well with wood and water, and envelop the boiler with a sheet-iron jacket, to prevent the waste of its vital heat. Every one sees the folly of stinting the engine in its food, or letting

its heat escape for want of a jacket. It is as clear, upon a little reflection, that the physical power of man is impaired by stinting him in food, clothing or shelter. But over and above mere physical energy, he has the gift of intelligence, the most effective element in his industrial power. This can be increased and enlightened by every accession of knowledge and development of the thinking faculty. But for this *leisure* is requisite, and leisure is only to be had after wages enough have been earned to satisfy the primary wants of humanity. Moreover, the great nervous stimulant that intensifies toil, is the laborer's hope of bettering his condition, and rising, in his own person, or in his posterity, to a higher grade of physical comfort and mental culture. All these—food, clothing, shelter, leisure, the stimulus of a hope, fed by the assurance of a first step in realized savings—are summed up in high wages. Their rate therefore, the effectiveness of capital remaining the same, and in the absence of restriction or spoliation, indicates the degree of productiveness of labor.

Labor when aided by capital, and in proportion as it is aided by capital, in more and better tools and machinery, becomes more productive.

Every improvement in the quality of labor, is attended by an increased facility of accumulation.

The increased power of accumulating capital, tends to lessen the value in labor of that already existing, because no commodity, however much labor it required for its original production, will exchange for more labor than is necessary to *reproduce* it at the time. It also tends to diminish the *proportion* of the value of any product of labor that can be demanded in return, for permitting it to be used by another. The man who can get an axe by the labor of a day, will not give for its use as large a proportion of its value, or of the wood that he cuts with it, as when it required the labor of a week to provide himself with such an instrument.

Labor is thus enabled, with the increase of capital (which is but the aggregate of axes and other tools, materials and food) to retain a constantly *increasing proportion* of the commodities produced, and consequently a constantly *decreasing proportion* is left for the remuneration of capital.

Labor, by its improvement in quality, is rendered so much more productive, that notwithstanding the diminution in the proportion claimed by the capitalist, there is an increase in the *absolute quantity* of commodities obtained in return for the use of a given amount of capital.

Land, like every other commodity, owes all its value to labor, and exchanges as time progresses, for *less of labor*, or its equivalents, than has been expended upon and about it, in bringing it to its existing condition in reference to improvement and markets. This results from the fact, that the acquisition of capital in the shape of more and better machinery, (by which I mean tools of all kinds, every implement except teeth and nails) enables one who would purchase land, to bring equal tracts into the same condition, at less cost of labor than was necessary previously. Moreover, the growth of capital enables men to clear, drain, and subdue more fertile lands, than those which at an earlier period, they were obliged to cultivate, because, though less productive, they were easy of tillage, and yielded a speedier return to labor with imperfect tools and processes, as a matter of fact verified by observation and history, the work of cultivation everywhere began upon the light, in soils of small fertility, and passes with the growth of population, capital, and the power of association to the more fertile soils, the most productive being the last to be made available.

From the foregoing considerations, it results that capital of all kinds, moveable and immoveable, tends to increase faster than population, and that the more rapid its increase, the more equal its distribution.

Such are in brief the laws of production and distribution discovered by Mr. Carey. Those whose eyes they may meet for the first time, will find various facts in support of them in the last November and January numbers of this Magazine. A few words will suffice to exhibit their application to the theory of social and political progress.

In the infancy of society, there is no division of laborer and capitalist. Every man works for himself, and does everything for himself. The whole of his toil is expended in obtaining the means of a wretched and precarious existence, fluctuating from surfeit one day, to famine the next, without achieving any surplus. That species of mutual insurance which comes from association and exchange, is impossible to any extent in the dispersion of the hunter state. The superfluity of one to-day does not supply the wants of another, and secure reciprocal aid for to-morrow.

When capital first makes its appearance distinct from labor, the laborer is uniformly a slave. His toil is unproductive, because there is no heart nor hope in it—as he produces little, he gets little, but the master soon sees it his interest to make that little more, by giving the slave an increased proportion of the fruits of his labor, in the shape of improved food, clothing, and shelter. It is necessary, if for no other purpose, to prevent him from running away. In the reign of Richard II., the rolls of Parliament show both the spiritual and temporal nobility of England complaining that their villeins fled into the trading towns—where, such was the liberal spirit of British law, a year's evasion of his lord's pursuit made the slave free forever—and that those who still continued in the country were emboldened to behave so insolently, that their masters were afraid of exercising their power, for fear of losing them irrevocably. The master soon sees that he can increase his profits by tempting the slave to increased *task work* by giving him all the surplus he can earn after finishing his task. With this partial liberty of working for himself, comes the stimulus of hope; he works harder for himself than when working for a master, and of course obtains higher wages. His power and his intelligence increase, capital increases, and it is finally seen that more work can be got from the slave, and at a cheaper rate by paying him fair wages, than in any other way. The fear of setting him free, diminishes as it is seen "how the *self-governing* strength and energy is stimulated and increased by the freedom to exercise it," and he is allowed to work out his liberty. A comparatively industrious and thriving community succeeds to an idle and spendthrift one. The free laborer obtains an increased share in the produce of his toil, in the shape of increased wages. These first enable him to make himself a stronger animal, and the capitalist obtains more from his energy, just as he does more from a good stout ox, than from a lean weak one. A further increase enables him to add intelligence to his toil, and he is more valuable than before, just as man in his lowest estate is a better working animal than the donkey. He is now enabled to serve, and thus to begin the acquisition of capital for himself, as the proportion falls, and with it the rate of interest; he obtains the use of capital on cheaper terms, and thus increases his productive power, and his capacity for saving. With his increased command of capital, comes increased political standing and social power. He achieves the removal of restrictions—the fetters of class privilege, the relics of his days of slavery

and barbarism. The middle class has arisen and becomes an ever-increasing power in the state, as it is fed from below by constant accessions from the most numerous order in society.*

The power of the aristocracy is gone. An Earl of Warwick could once maintain ten thousand retainers, because he retained two-thirds of the produce of his estates in the shape of rent, because men were content to serve for wages that afforded them less of comfort and luxury than fall to the lot of the inmates of the worst hovels in the filthiest quarter of a modern town. The Duke of Wellington maintains perhaps thirty. The men who keep armies now are the chiefs of industry. Thus civil and social equality are worked out gradually, and the posterity of the slave become republican freemen.

Laws which are adequate to explain the past, prophecy the future. The emancipation of the workman comes from Peace, and Concentration. It is postponed by War and Dispersion. The Zoll Verein, the union of thirty millions of people under different governments to maintain free trade with each other, and to increase it by Protection against the system which has formerly driven them to foreign trade, is the greatest among European agencies for the emancipation of labor. It *is*, as the Westminster Reviewer says, "a question of extending the circle of consumers, of consequently augmenting production, of giving a large share to producers, of opening a wide road to the operative for the acquisition of wealth and property—in short of putting capital and the instruments of labor within reach of every man offering a guaranty of goodwill, capacity, and morality. This question is being solved, and these objects are being attained, everywhere, just in proportion as men protect themselves from being made tributary to sustaining Great Britain in a monopoly of manufacturing, which she can only retain, by keeping *wages down*. Her system inculcates, to producers everywhere, that their interest should be, what Silas Wright declared our agriculture has ever been and must remain, *an exporting interest*. Every exporting interest is based upon keeping wages down, and all who accept such counsels, join in a conspiracy against the elevation of labor at home and abroad.

E. P. S.

Art. VI.—THE NAVAL DRY DOCKS OF THE UNITED STATES.†

The Naval Dry Docks of the United States constitute some of the most stupendous mechanical enterprises of the country, and in one or two instances they are surpassed in extent and the difficulties of their construction by few similar works in the world. The number of these docks is seven. They are located at the navy yards of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Portsmouth, Norfolk, Pensacola, and San Francisco. Their cost has been not less than seven millions of dollars.

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* Statutes regulating the wages of labor, and compelling men to labor at fixed rates, were successively enacted in England till a very recent period, *the rates continually rising*. Corporation privileges have been restricted—the laws preventing combinations of workmen, the emigration of artisans, &c., have been repealed, &c., &c.

† The Naval Dry Docks of the United States. By Charles B. Stuart, Engineer-in-Chief of the United States Navy. Illustrated with twenty-four fine engravings on steel. Quarto, pp. 216. New York: Charles B. Norton.

By far the most extensive, costly, and magnificent of these structures is the Granite Dry Dock of New York. It is the largest in the world, and in the admirable plan and principles upon which it is built, it will remain for ages one of the proudest monuments of the engineering and mechanical skill of the nineteenth century.

We propose to give a brief history, and an outline of the plan of this vast structure, sufficient to convey to our readers some adequate idea of the extent and importance of this general subject; and our remarks will be confined chiefly to points embraced in the recent valuable work of Mr. CHARLES B. STUART, Engineer-in-Chief of the navy. This is the first work of any extent and magnitude upon the subject which has been offered to the American public. It aims to show in the most practical manner the mode of working these docks, and to give a complete history and description, in the fullest detail, of the Granite Dock at New York, the Floating Sectional Dry Dock at Philadelphia, and the Floating Balance Dry Dock, Portsmouth. It is illustrated with numerous, large, finely executed, and accurate steel engravings; and it is such a work as was wanted to give to the world the information, in regard to this branch of the public service, which has heretofore been chiefly confined to the officers of the government. The details which it contains relating to the different materials of which these works are made, the entire cost of construction, &c., are adapted to instruct statesman and the man of science. The entire appearance of the volume, its typography, engravings, paper, &c., are very fine.

The site for a naval dry dock in the harbor of New York was examined as long ago as 1826. Nothing, further, however, was done about it until 1835, when Congress authorized an examination for a definite location. But no decisive measures were taken until March, 1841, when Congress appropriated fifty thousand dollars for commencing the work. The work was afterwards suspended, a new examination of the location made, and an investigation into the merits of the various kinds of dry docks. It was not until October, 1844, that it was again resumed, under the charge of Gen. W. G. MCNEIL. By him the plans for the masonry were enlarged and matured, the coffer-dam was extended, and the excavation removed to the level of low-tide.

From April, 1845, to June, 1846, the superintendence was committed to W. P. S. Songer, who continued the construction of the coffer-dam and the dredging of the excavation below the water inside the dam.

From June, 1846, to October, 1849, the labor was under the superintendence of W. J. McAlpine. It consisted of enlarging and completing the coffer-dam, the excavating of the bottom portion of the pit excavation, the driving of the foundation piles, the putting in the foundation timbers and concrete, the construction of a large portion of the superstructure of the dock, and the foundations of the pump, well, and engine-house.

In October, 1849, Gen. Stuart assumed the charge of the work and continued until the date of its completion, in August, 1851. Under the direction of Gen. Stuart, the superstructure was completed, and the construction of the iron-turning gates, the various culvert gates, the pumping-engine, and pumps, the floating-gate or caisson, the iron work of the engine-house, the completion of the dock apron, and the removal of the coffer-dam performed.

The superstratum of the site selected for the dock, in the Wallabout Bay, was found to be chiefly formed by vegetable decomposition, to the depth of ten feet; below this there is an almost impalpable quicksand,

containing a large proportion of mica. When confined and not mixed with water, it is very firm and unyielding, and presents a strong resistance to penetration, but when saturated with water, it becomes semi-fluid and is moved by the slightest current of water passing over or through it. As it was necessary to place the foundation thirty-seven feet below mean level, a coffer-dam was required. One was, therefore, constructed four hundred and seventy feet long, and from sixty to one hundred feet wide. The total cost of this dam, including repairs of breaches, was nearly two hundred and forty-six thousand dollars.

The pit, which was excavated for the foundation, covered an area of two acres at the top and one acre at the bottom. It was sunk to the depth of forty-two feet in the earth. When the excavation had extended to within about six feet of the required level, springs of fresh water burst up and were the cause of the greatest difficulty in laying the foundations. The stratum through which it flowed was evidently at a great depth, and even when contiguous they were not united. A very interesting account of the difficulties which were occasioned by these springs is given by Mr. Stuart in his work, from which we make a brief extract:—

"The difficulties did not proceed from the mere flowing of the waters, but this, as it came up, brought with it large quantities of sand, so fine and impalpable as to insinuate itself through the smallest interstices, even through the checks and cracks of the timbers, and if allowed to flow in this way would soon have endangered the surrounding works; nor could the water be checked with safety, as its pressure was found sufficient to raise the foundation, however heavily it could be loaded. It became necessary, therefore, to provide for the flow of the water, and at the same time check the escape of the sand.

"One of the most powerful springs was encountered near the temporary pump-well, at the north-east corner of the dock. The first evidence of undermining from this spring was the settling of the piles driven to support the pumps and engine, rendering it necessary to change the pump-well; but the spring followed, and compelled another change of the well. This spring was driven out of the old well by filling it with piles, but immediately burst up among the foundation piles of the dock near by. In a single day it made a cavity in which a pole was run down to the depth of twenty feet below the foundation timbers. One hundred and fifty cubic feet of cobble-stone were thrown into this hole, which settled ten feet during the night, and fifty cubic feet were thrown in the next day, which drove the spring to another place where it undermined and burst up through a bed of concrete two feet thick. This new cavity was repeatedly filled up with concrete, leaving a tube for the water to flow through; but in a few days it burst up through a heavy body of concrete, in a place fourteen feet distant, where it soon undermined the concrete, and even the foundation piles, so that they settled from one to three inches. These piles were thirty-three feet long, and driven by a hammer weighing two thousand pounds, pulling thirty-five feet at the last blow, with an average of seventy-six blows to each pile, the last of which did not move the pile over half an inch.

"This alarming result rendered paramount the adoption of the most thorough measures, to prevent any further injuries from this source. It was accordingly determined to drive as many additional piles as could be forced into the space, and by means of followers, to force those already driven as deep as possible. This was done although under many disadvantageous circumstances, the old concrete was removed to a depth of twenty inches below the top of the piles; an area of about one thousand square feet around the spring was then planked, on which a floor of brick was laid in dry cement, and on that, another layer of brick was set in mortar made of Roman cement; the space was next filled with concrete and the foundations completed over all, in the usual manner and with the greatest dispatch possible; several vent holes were left through the floor and

foundations. After a few days' interval, when the cement had become set, the spring was forced up to a level of about ten feet above the former outlet, and at this point it flowed clear, and no longer charged with sand."

There were about forty of these springs, which were treated in the same successful manner.

The piles are chiefly sound spruce timber from twenty-five to forty feet long, and averaging fourteen inches diameter at the head. The number of bearing piles is six thousand five hundred. They were mostly driven to the point of absolute resistance. The number of blows given to each and the depth driven by every blow were recorded.

But we must pass over the details of making the foundation and of the apron to protect the front of the dock from undermining, to notice the splendid masonry of this magnificent structure. The work of Mr. Stuart will be found to contain even the minutest detail of importance.

There is perhaps no modern structure that compares with this national work in the dimensions or the durability of the materials of which it is composed, or the beauty and accuracy of their workmanship. Eighty thousand tons of stone have been used in its construction. The masonry foundations are four hundred feet in length, and one hundred and twenty feet in breadth. The main chamber is two hundred and eighty-six feet long, and thirty feet broad on the bottom; three hundred and seven feet long and ninety-eight feet broad at the top, within the folding gates. By using the floating-gate an additional length of fifty feet may be obtained. The hight of the wall is thirty-six feet. The smallest face stone exceeds three thousand pounds in weight, and the average is about six thousand pounds. The facing stones are all laid to a joint not exceeding three-sixteenths of an inch, and the joints are kept up full to the line, for the full depth of the stone. The quantity of cement used was twenty-nine thousand one hundred and forty-seven barrels.

But our limits will not permit us to follow this interesting description through the details of the construction of the "pump-well and culverts;" "the engine house;" "the turning-gates;" "the floating-gate;" "the culvert-gates;" "the iron-capstans;" "the pumping-engine and pumps;" "removal of coffer-dam;" &c., &c.

The work was just ten years in process of construction. The aggregate expenditure exceeds two million one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Four hours and twenty minutes is the time required for the complete docking of the largest ship.

In this work, by Mr. Stuart, we are next presented with an ample account of the dry docks at Boston and at Norfolk. This is followed by a description of large and very beautiful plates in illustration of the subject, and by an appendix which concludes the first part.

The contents of the second part are the details of the dock at Philadelphia; the history and description of the California Dock, and the details of the one at Portsmouth. It would be exceedingly interesting to enter more fully into this subject, and to contrast the features of the Granite, the Floating-Sectional, and the Floating-Balance Docks; but it would lead us too far and consume too much of our limits.

We cannot leave the subject without bestowing our thanks upon the accomplished author of this work, for the splendid volume which he has produced upon a subject of such vital importance to commercial and naval affairs, and for the tasteful and elegant manner in which it has been produced by that

young and enterprising publisher, CHARLES B. NORTON, of New York. We trust the public will appreciate these labors and bestow upon them that high degree of patronage to which they are so justly entitled.

Art. VII.—QUESTIONS RELATING TO THE THEORY OF STORMS.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine* :—

DEAR SIR :—In the number of your magazine for February last, you republished some strictures on the report on storms, made by Prof. Espy, to the Naval Department of the United States. Since then, I have received officially, a quarto pamphlet entitled "ESPY'S REPORT ON METEOROLOGY."

In this addition there are a number of important generalizations. These have suggested a series of queries to Prof. Espy, as well as to meteorologists in general, which it may be expedient for you to insert in your periodical.

Every farmer, navigator, and merchant, must take an interest in whatever concerns the weather. I hope, therefore, that my queries may be sufficiently popular for insertion in a magazine, intended for a body of men so intelligent and well educated, as American merchants are in general.

Truly yours,

ROBT. HARE.

QUERIES BY DR. HARE, TO PROF. ESPY, OR TO METEOROLOGISTS IN GENERAL, INDUCED MAINLY BY CERTAIN GENERALIZAIONS IN ESPY'S REPORT TO THE NAVAL DEPARTMENT.

Having been called on officially to give his opinion on Prof. Espy's labors, Dr. Hare has preferred to publish them in full, rather than resort to a brief epistolary juridical communication.

The subjoined generalizations are quoted from the quarto pamphlet, entitled "Espy's Reports on Meteorology," page 5.

1. "The rain and snow storms, and even the moderate rains and snows, travel from the west towards the east in the United States, during the months of November, December, January, February, and March, which are the only months to which these generalizations apply."

2. "The storms are accompanied with a depression of the barometer near the central line of the storm."

3. "This central line of minimum pressure is generally of great length from north to south, and moves side foremost towards the east."

5. "The velocity of this line is such, that it travels from the Mississippi to the Connecticut river in about twenty-four hours, and from the Connecticut to St. John's, Newfoundland, in nearly the same time, or about thirty-six miles an hour."

7. "In great storms, the wind, for several hundred miles on both sides of the minimum pressure, blows towards that line directly, or obliquely."

10. "Many storms are of great and unknown length, from north to south, reaching beyond our observers on the Gulf of Mexico and on the northern lakes, while their east and west diameter is comparatively small. The storms, therefore, move side foremost."

11. "Most storms commence in the 'far west,' beyond our most western observers; but some commence in the United States."

13. "There is generally a lull of wind at the line of minimum pressure, and sometimes a calm."

QUERIES SUBMITTED FOR THE CONSIDERATION OF PROF. ESPY, BEFORE MAKING HIS NEXT REPORT.

1. Has not experience established, that vessels in approaching the Atlantic coast of the United States, are liable to be subjected, in the first instance, to a violent south-easter, then to a calm or lull, followed by a north-wester, no less violent than the gale first encountered?

2. Whether the gale of 1836, of which the phenomena were recorded by Prof. Loomis, and published in the transactions of the American Philosophical Society, soon after, does not exemplify the origin and progress of such gales, by showing that the wind blew from between north and west, towards an oblong area of minimum barometric pressure, on one side; while it blew towards that area on the other side, from the opposite quadrant of the horizon, between south and east?

3. Whether the observations thus recorded, do not show that the area of minimum pressure moved gradually from the north-west towards south-east, subjecting every station successively exposed to it, first to a south-easter, then to a lull, and finally to a north-wester?

4. Whether the course of this storm was not from north-west to south-east; and whether it did not, in this respect, agree with the well known gales, or hurricanes, above adverted to as universally called south-easters?

5. These premises admitted, Mr. Espy is requested to explain wherefore, in one of his generalizations, he alleges that storms travel from west towards the east during the five winter months, instead of alleging that they travel from north-west to south-east, consistently with the observations of Loomis above mentioned?

6. Whether, if the language of the generalization were accurate, all gales experienced on the United States coast, would not blow from due east first, and from due west afterwards?

7. Whether there is not another distinct kind of storm, long known and universally recognized as the "north-easter" or "north-eastern gale," which has been distinguished from the south-easter, so called, by its direction, its longer endurance, lesser violence, and by its not being usually followed, after a brief lull, by a north-wester; nor any violent wind in a direction directly opposite to that in which it blew at the beginning of the storm?

8. Whether, moreover, co-existent with this north-eastern gale, there are not always upper clouds, which are to be seen occasionally through openings in the rainy strata, which upper clouds move slowly from the south-west in a direction nearly opposite to that which the scud pursues?

9. Whether, agreeably to the observations of Franklin, and general experience confirming them, our storms producing north-eastern gales do not travel from south-west to north-east, so that they are perceived earlier as the place of exposure is more to leeward?

10. Whether their traveling thus, does not warrant the opinion that they commence in the Gulf of Mexico, and are propagated gradually to the north-east along the Atlantic States, and the neighboring portion of the Atlantic ocean?

11. Whether the observations of Redfield do not establish, so far as they are reliable, that certain storms travel from the Gulf along the coast of the United States, and of course from south-west to north-east; and how these results are to be reconciled with the generalizations in the report, or with the evidence adduced by Loomis?

12. Whether any absurdity which Redfield's inferences involve respecting the interior phenomena of his suppositious whirlwinds, justify distrust of the correctness of the route which they are represented to have pursued?

13. Whether we are to admit a generalization, which agrees neither with Loomis, Franklin, nor Redfield?

14. How can the observations of Franklin, confirmed by a very general impression that they were sagacious and well founded, be reconciled with those made by Loomis, also highly esteemed, unless there be two kinds of storms,

one of which travels from the *north-west* to *south-east*, and the other from *south-west* to *north-east*?

15. Whether it can be correct to confound both of these kinds of storms under the one generalization of "*Storms moving from west to east?*"

16. Whether there is any difference in the direction of storms during the warmer months, justifying the restrictions to the colder season, of the generalization that storms move from east to west?

17. Do not tornadoes always move, whether in summer or winter, from west to east?

18. Do not thunder gusts almost invariably move from west to east, usually from N. W. to S. E.?

19. Whether there is any coincidence as to time between the prevalence of the terrific norther of the Mexican Gulf Coast, and that of our north-east gales?

20. Whether they are not both consequent to the displacement of the warmer air lying on the Gulf, by the colder air of the territory of the United States, north or north-east of the Gulf, to whatever cause that displacement may be due?

21. Whether simultaneously with the existence of the norther on the western coast of the Gulf, there *is* or *is not*, a north-easter blowing from the United States territory eastward of the Allegheny ridge, into the aerial estuary over the Gulf?

22. There being three different climates within the territory of Mexico, according to the altitude of the localities throughout which they prevail, the lower being designated as the hot region, the middle as the rainy region, and the upper or table land of the City of Mexico, as the mild and dry region; whether it is not evident that the clouds of the Gulf do not ever cross the table land; but by their access to the intermediate region, cause its characteristic humidity?

23. Whether in point of fact, the climate of the table land of Mexico and that of the Gulf, are not independent of each other, so that, however an ascent of the air of a portion of the Gulf may render an horizontal afflux to supply its place necessary, the effect will be to draw the whole supply from the lower and comparatively cooler territory of the United States, lying to the north and east of the Gulf?

24. Whether, as the area of the Gulf reaches to nearly two-thirds of the size of the valley of the Mississippi, and the territory of the Atlantic States, it should not have a great influence on the winds of the United States, and whether it does not justify a doubt of the correctness of any sweeping generalizations which do not admit that great estuary to have any influence?

25. Whether the prevalence of gales supposed generally to occur about the time of the Autumnal Equinox, may not be explained by this fact, that the decline of the solar heat in September, cools the land more than the seas by which it is bounded; whence it follows that at this season of terrestrial refrigeration, there will be greater propensity for the air over the land, to displace that of the adjoining seas; and whether this process is not likely to be peculiarly influential in the case of the Gulf of Mexico, and the territory of the United States, thus creating an unusual tendency to the production of north-east gales about the time of the equinox?

26. Whether the north-eastern gale does not cease to be a rainy wind at a certain distance from the United States coast, and if so, at what distance does it become a dry wind, a harbinger of a cloudless sky?

27. Whether this diversity in the character of the north-easter, may not be fairly ascribed to the facts above cited in relation to the Gulf of Mexico, since when the gale in question blows into the basin of that estuary, the air displaced by it being incapable of surmounting the barrier made by the table land and mountains, so as to get off to leeward, it has to flow back over the inblowing gale, furnishing thus the moisture which forms its well known attribute?

28. Whether the fact that, beyond the range of our Atlantic coast, there is no such basin and barrier, is not the reason of their being no moisture associ-

ated with winds having a north-eastern direction, since in that case there is no barrier to cause the moist air displaced to flow in an opposite course above that of the displacing current below?

29. Whether the general tendency of the wind, in the upper region, to move from south-west to north-east, over the United States territory, does not fortify the idea that the warm and moist air, displaced from the Gulf, must pursue an opposite route to that of the lower wind by which it may be supplanted?*

QUERIES RESPECTING THE CONFLICTING EXPLANATIONS OF THE CAUSES OF TORNADOES AND WATER SPOUTS.†

The preceding queries are intended to draw attention to those points of view in which the generalizations of Prof. Espy are apparently irreconcileable with well known facts, extensive experience, or the observations of other meteorologists; but as the learned Professor mingles references to his theory incessantly with his observations, I request that he answer some queries bearing thereupon.

I therefore propose the following inquiries:—

Whether there are not two well known modes of electrical discharge, by which bodies oppositely electrified are made to neutralize each other, in one of which, electricity passes in a spark, in the other, is conveyed from one surface to the other, by the motion of some intervening body; whence the alternate motion of clappers between bells, of pith balls, or puppets between disks, and of blasts of air from electrified points.

The existence of these modes of discharge being admitted, and also that one of them has been called the spark, or diruptive discharge, the other, the carrying or convective discharge. I ask whether any charge whatever, may not be neutralized either by the convective or diruptive process, so that the one is commutable for the other by a slight diversity of distance.

Whether in every case of the existence of an electric charge, attraction does not take place between the surfaces, or bodies employed to hold it?

Whether it does not follow, that wherever there can be a charge competent to produce the diruptive spark discharge, there must be a competency to produce the convective discharge?

These premises conceded, and it being admitted that lightning is a diruptive discharge on a gigantic scale, does it not follow that there must be a gigantic convective discharge in nature upon a scale of commensurate magnitude?

Let Mr. Espy say where that convective discharge is to be found, if it be not in the tornado or water-spout?

Let him say in what respect the features of the tornado are discordant with those of a convective electrical discharge?

Let him say why the phenomena observed by Allen, are not a magnificent illustration of the alternation of the convective and diruptive discharge?‡

Is it not evident that when a balloon rises it is pressed up, by the wedging in under it of the heavier surrounding air, and that this, while it presses the balloon upwards, presses downwards on the column of air immediately under it?§

If this be a true representation of the process by which a balloon is elevated, how could the ascent of a balloon, however great, at the level of the clouds, dis-

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* Prof. Espy may probably consider his generalizations as justified by the plotted record of his observations, but the examination of them has not created that impression. He has lectured and reported upon his own theory and observations, without bringing those of his predecessors or contemporaries sufficiently into view.

† See *Merchants' Magazine* for February last, page 193

‡ The observations of Mr. Allen were stated in the following words:—"Being within a few yards of this spot, I had an opportunity of accurately noting the effects produced on the surface of the water. The circle formed by the tornado on the foaming water was about 300 feet in diameter. Within this circle the water appeared to be in commotion, like that in a huge boiling caudron. The waves heaved and swelled, whenever the point of this cone passed over them, apparently as if some magical spell were acting upon them by the effect of enchantment. *Twice I noticed a gleam of lightning, or of electric fluid to dart through the column of vapor. After the flash, the foam of the water seemed immediately to diminish for a moment, as if the discharge of the electric fluid had served to calm the excitement on its agitat d surface.*"

§ See *Merchants' Magazine* for February, page 193, *last paragraph.*

turb the column of air supporting the balloon, so low down as the base resting on the terrestrial surface?

Does not this reasoning apply equally to a mass of air warmer than that surrounding it, in consequence of the latent heat yielded by condensation of the contained vapor.

Is not this the reason why the inflammation of a stratum of carded cotton above the mouth of an inverted open-necked bell glass, produced not the slightest movement in fibers of the same material, situated on a wire gauze within the bell immediately over the bore of the neck?

Are not all the Espyan requisites for the production of a tornado to be found in the upward current of air over equatorial regions, by which the trade winds are induced? If so, wherefore does not a tornado prevail there, as enduring as that upward current?

QUERIES TO METEOROLOGISTS GENERALLY.

The following queries are not made with any reference to Espy's theory or generalizations; but with a view to complete the series which has at this time been suggested to me as worthy of the attention of meteorologists.

Does it not follow that whenever any portion of the atmosphere is charged positively, or negatively, the aerial particles must undergo a corresponding rarefaction from the reciprocal repulsion consequent to a similar state of electrical excitement? May not this be one cause of a buoyancy and consequent ascentional power, producing a penetration of the region of frost, by the lower strata of the atmosphere?

Whenever electrical repulsion tends to counteract gravitation, is it not reasonable that barometrical pressure should be diminished, and may not oppositely charged aerial masses by rushing together, sustain a diminution of volume, and cause a precipitation of vapor as rain, by super-saturating the space within which they commingle?

If, as above suggested, a diversity of electrical excitement be followed by corresponding variations of the density of the air and of the space occupied by it, whenever by such means a dilatation of bulk occurs in a mass of the atmosphere, will it not take up any moisture to which there may be access sufficient to saturate the additional space occupied; and whenever the opposite change of diminution of volume ensues, will it not deposite a proportionable quantity of moisture?

Is not the action of the air in this respect in taking up and giving out moisture, analogous to that of a sponge, which absorbs or gives out any surrounding liquid, accordingly as it may be allowed to dilate by its own elasticity, or made to contract by mechanical compression?

May not each globule of water in a cloud be inflated with air like a bubble, while this bubble may be expanded by electrical repulsion, so as to be more buoyant, than if it were electrically neutral, and may not this be one cause of the buoyancy of clouds?

May not a buoyancy thus arising, be one source of ascensional power inducing those upward currents which cause rain?

It is well known that clouds intercept the radiant heat given off by the terrestrial surface to such an extent, that white frost, which is always the consequence of radiation, only takes place when the sky is clear. Does it not follow that the clouds must acquire heat by terrestrial radiation, so that the air with which they are associated must consequently be made warmer and more buoyant than it would otherwise be?

Have we not reason then to infer, that the heat arising from radiation, is one of the causes of the buoyancy of clouds?

Nevertheless, for the most, is not the persistence of clouds only apparent? Are they not formed as the vapor, in any rising column of air, reaches the level where there is sufficient refrigeration to condense it; but is not the cloud thus formed, dissolved usually by the air above, of which the dew point is so low as to enable it to take up the precipitated vapor?

Are not the phenomena analogous to those of the fog or cloud, which may appear to surmount *persistently* the escape pipe of a steamboat boiler, although this is manifestly the effect of a successive condensation of succeeding portions of the aqueous vapor?

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.:*—

ST. LOUIS, June 10, 1852.

I inclose you the decision of one of our courts upon a commercial question of some importance, here, where there is no statute declaring the authority of a factor over the goods consigned to him—the whole matter being left to the common law:—

DUTIES OF A CARRIER IN PRESERVING GOODS INTRUSTED TO HIS CARE.

The case of Bird *vs.* Cromwell, 1 Mo. R. 81, referred to in the decision of the case of Chouteau *vs.* Leech, in the *Merchants' Magazine* for June, 1852, (vol. xxvi., page 715,) may be of some interest, and I send you a note of it:

Bird *vs.* Cromwell, 1 Mo. R. 81. Cromwell brought his action on the case against Bird, for negligence in transporting a quantity of coffee, shipped on board the defendant's barge, from New Orleans to St. Louis, whereby the same got wet and was damaged. On the trial, plaintiff proved the bill of lading, showing the shipping of the coffee, to be delivered in St. Louis, "the dangers of the river only excepted," and also proved, that when the coffee was delivered, part of it had been wet. The defendant proved, that on the voyage, the barge struck a snag and shipped about four inches of water; that, for the purpose of repairs, the barge was got to the shore in about twelve or fourteen minutes, and, the bow being raised, the water ran back and damaged the plaintiff's goods. None of the plaintiff's goods were taken out, but, the leak being stopped, the barge was repaired, and she proceeded on her voyage after a detention of about 24 hours. The court decided, that it was the duty of the carrier to use all exertions to prevent damage, so long as they may probably avail, in all cases, whether the character of the accident be such as, in the event of a total loss, would discharge him or not; and that, in this case, it was the duty of the carrier to use all means in his power to dry the coffee, and, if by opening the barrels and drying the coffee he might have prevented the damage, and he neglected to do it, he was liable for such neglect.

This case was decided in 1821, and has since been considered as the settled law of this State, upon the subject of the duties of the carrier, in preserving the goods intrusted to his care.

Respectfully yours, &c.,
CHAS C. WHITTELSEY, Att'y at Law.

AUTHORITY OF A FACTOR OVER GOODS CONSIGNED TO HIM, ETC.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (St. Louis, Missouri, June, 1852,) James Berry, Jr., & Co., *vs.* Christopher Rhodes.

This was a suit which, under the old code, would have been an action of trover, for the conversion by the defendant of a quantity of glass belonging to the plaintiffs. The plaintiffs, merchants of Pittsburgh, consigned to Love & Osborne, factors and commission merchants in St. Louis, a large quantity of glass for sale, at six months, or cash, but drew no bills upon the shipment. Love & Osborne's commissions were five per cent, which included storage in their own house, and insurance, but did not include freights, drayage, nor the storage in other warehouses. Love & Osborne paid for freight and drayage about $280. Love & Osborne being indebted to the defendant Rhodes upon a due bill for the sum of $482 89, Rhodes applied to them for payment, and they not having the

money, he offered to take it in glass. They declined at first, stating that the glass did not belong to them, but to a house at Pittsburg, and that taking the glass would be robbing Peter to pay Paul. After many solicitations, Love & Osborne finally consented, and made the defendant a bill of glass, treating it as a cash sale, and discounting the interest off the six months' price, and credited the bill with the amount of the due bill, still leaving a small balance in favor of defendant. The sale, as regards the defendant, was treated as a cash sale, but as regards the plaintiffs, was treated as a sale at six months. At the time of this transaction, Love & Osborne had made no advances except for freight and drayage, and had given no acceptance to the plaintiffs. In their correspondence with the plaintiffs, they merely stated that they had made sale, but gave no account. In April, 1851, the plaintiffs drew on L. & O., at four months, for $1,000, and this bill was paid. In May, the plaintiffs drew another bill, at four months, which was not paid. In August, 1851, L. & O. rendered an account of sales. The sales, at the date of the payment of the first draft, in August, amounted to $2,427. In October, 1851, plaintiffs demanded the glass of defendant, which not being delivered, they sued, as for a conversion.

The defendant contended, first, that the payment for the goods, by the due bill of Love & Osborne, was a good payment, and was to be considered as a cash sale as between L. & O. and the defendant; although it was to be treated as a credit sale, as between L. & O. and the plaintiffs. 2. That if it was not good as a sale payment, then the defendant was to be credited with the amount due L. & O., by the plaintiffs, for freight and drayage, and the commissions upon the bill sold the defendant, and for which L. & O., as factors, had a lien upon the goods consigned.

The plaintiffs contended, 1. That as the factor could not pledge the goods, neither could he sell to pay his own debt, to a person who bought with knowledge of his agency. 2. That the defendant was not entitled to the credit he claimed, as, at the expiration of six months from the sale, the balance was in favor of the plaintiffs, against the factors, Love and Osborne.

The court gave judgment in this case in favor of the plaintiffs, for the full amount claimed. The court held, that the conversion by the defendant was a wrongful conversion, as he took them with a full knowledge of the facts of the case, and that the goods did not belong to the factors, Love &. Osborne, but knew that they were the property of a house in Pittsburg; and that as the defendants thus took the goods with knowledge, the court held that the delivery of the due bill was not a payment for the goods; and farther held, that the defendant could not, under such circumstances, recover the amount that had been advanced by the factors, and was not entitled to any credit upon the amount of the bill purchased. The principle upon which the court decided the case was, that a factor cannot sell the goods of his principal in payment of his own debt, to a person who purchases with the full knowledge that the goods are not the goods of the factor. To warrant the purchaser to set off the debt of the factor against the claim of the principal, he must be a purchaser bona fide and without notice. Judgment for the plaintiff the amount of the bill of the glass, with interest after six months.

BOTTOMRY.—THE ANN C. PRATT.

A bottomry bond made for a larger sum than is due, for the purpose of being used to defraud underwriters, is void, and no remedy can be had upon it, although no fraud was intended against the owners of the vessel.

The rule of the Admiralty, which holds that a bond may be good for a part and bad for a part, does not apply to one made for the purpose of defrauding the insurers.

But a fraudulent bond will not necessarily vitiate the consideration so far as it is meritorious. For so much, the creditor may recover by process *in rem* on the hypothecation implied by law.

When the master is separated from the ship, by death or other casualty, the mate succeeds in the command as *heres necessarius*.

The possibility of this command being devolved on him, is a contingency contemplated by his engagement, and he engages for a competent degree of skill in seamanship and navigation for the management of the ship on the happening of this event. He is also entitled to the ordinary presumption in his favor, that he acted with fidelity and ordinary skill, until the contrary is proved.

CARRINGTON, libellant, *vs.* THE ANN C. PRATT—PRATT, claimant.

This is a libel on a bottomry bond executed by the acting master. The brig

Ann C. Pratt sailed from Frankfort, Nov. 7, 1850, on a voyage to the Western Islands, and thence to such foreign port or ports as the master should determine. On her outward passage she encountered heavy gales, squalls, and had fresh breezes during the whole time. She labored badly, and leaked from the commencement of the voyage, although she had been overhauled, and was supposed to be thoroughly repaired, so that three days after sailing, it was found necessary to lighten her by throwing over nearly the whole of her deckload. She arrived at Terceira on the 29th of November. Here she discharged part of her cargo and took part of another. From Terceira she sailed for St. Michael, Dec. 30, and made land the next day, but by a continued series of gales, squalls and bad weather, they were prevented from making a harbor till the 11th of January, when the vessel was brought to anchor and moored at Villa Franche, an open roadstead. She lay there till the 13th, when, the captain being ashore, the brig was struck by a heavy squall, which drove her from her moorings, with the loss of all her cables and anchors, except part of her best bower chain. The squall struck her from the N. W. but soon veered round to the W. S. W., driving her directly on shore, so that the hands on board, to save themselves from being driven on the rocks, were obliged to stand off. On the same day, in the afternoon, as is stated in the depositions of Arey, and M'Donald, the second mate, there was a consultation of the crew to consider what was best to be done. The crew on board at this time consisted of the second mate, two able seamen, one one of whom, Hurris, was sick below, two ordinary seamen, one a Portuguese, who spoke English very imperfectly, and two boys, one only of whom spoke English, and the cook. With the exception of Arey and the second mate, the other members of the ship's company say that they knew of no consultation of the crew. If there was any, it must have been very informal, and though Arey and McDonald both say that the opinion of the crew was in favor of proceeding to St. Thomas, which was the port that the master determined to proceed to next, instead of attempting to return to St. Michael or bearing away for an eastern port, it is evident that Arey, in doing this, must have been governed by his own opinion in concurrence with that of the second mate. On her passage for three or four days, the brig leaked badly till she took the trade winds, and from that time she made her voyage without difficulty, and arrived at St. Thomas the 6th of February. Here Arey called on the American consul and had, under his warrant, a survey. In a written report the surveyors stated the repairs that, in their opinion, were required to make her seaworthy. Three master shipwrights, the only persons in the place who undertook such business, were applied to for proposals or tenders for making the repairs ordered by the surveyors, and the contract was made with Pland, whose offer was the most favorable. The money for making the repairs and to meet the other necessary charges for supplies while she was under repairs, and for fitting her for her return voyage, beyond what the master had on board, and the proceeds of the sale of the cargo, was advanced by the libellant, under an agreement with Arey, on the security of a bottomry bond and a bill of exchange drawn for the sum claimed, on the payment of which to bond was to be held satisfied and cancelled. The bill having been protested, this suit was commenced on the bond.

Rowe and Bartlett for the libellant.

Willis and Fessenden for the respondents.

WARE, District Judge.

Several objections have been made to the libellant's right to recover in this case. In the first place, it is said that it was the duty of Arey, when he was blown off by the gale, to have returned to St. Michael's and restored the command of the vessel to the master, and that there was nothing in the state of the weather that rendered this impracticable. But whatever fault may have been committed by Arey in this part of his conduct, whether an error of judgment or a delinquency of a graver character, it cannot affect the libellant. The vessel came into St. Thomas in distress. It is certain that repairs were needed. There was a regular survey by competent surveyors, appointed by the American Consul, and there is nothing in the evidence to impeach the fairness and the honesty

of the surveyors. The libellant knew nothing of the causes which brought her there, without her master and without her papers, except what he could learn from Arey and the crew, and their account sufficiently explained the fact. On the separation of the master from the ship by death or other casualty, the mate succeeds to his authority as *heres necessarius*; the law imposes on him the duties and responsibilities, and clothes him with the authority of master. This substitution is a contingency that is contemplated by his engagement, which cannot be declined by him but by a default of duty. Arriving at St. Thomas as he did, he had all the authority to order necessary repairs and to make all contracts for that purpose that he would have had, if he had been originally appointed master. The circumstances under which he arrived, it may be said, ought to suggest caution and prudence, and to awaken the vigilance of those who dealt with him, but his authority was the same as would have been that of the original master.

Arey, who was now the acting master, not having the control of means adequate to meet the cost of repairs, and being unable to obtain them on the personal credit of the owners, was authorized to borrow on the credit of the vessel. But it is said that this authority, having its origin in necessity, is limited to the cost of such repairs as are indispensably necessary to enable the ship to proceed on her voyage; that the repairs ordered exceeded that necessity, and that beyond this the master has no authority to charge the owners by a resort to the onerous expedient of a bottomry bond. And it is argued, that beyond this there was a want of prudence and a wasteful extravagance in making the repairs that were made.

This argument presents itself with a double aspect—first, as it touches the rights of the bonder, and secondly, as it questions the discretion and good faith of the master. As it affects the bottomry creditor, the answer appears to me to be very obvious. All that is required of the lender, in such cases, is to be assured that an unprovided necessity exists, and that the means cannot be obtained on the personal credit of the owners. If the money is then advanced in good faith, without collusion with the master for the purposes of fraud, the lender is not bound to see to its application. *Emerigon Tracts a la Grapa*, ch. 4, sec. 7. *Dig.* 14. 1. 1. 59. *The June*, 1 *Dodson*, 465. If the sum advanced is somewhat more than is strictly necessary, unless the lender's suspicions are justly awakened by gross and manifest extravagance, his claim under his bond will not be impaired. For when a case of apparent necessity exists, the law does not impose on him the responsibility of determining the extent of the repairs required. The lender, says Emerigon, is justified in relying on the honesty of the master; and besides, if he were required to decide on the nature and the necessity of the repairs, it would be requisite for him to be an expert in the business—*il faut etre du metier.*

As relates to the master, the arguments apply with more force. His authority to borrow money on bottomry is strictly limited to the necessities of the ship, and in order to justify himself to the owners, he must show the extent of the necessity. But then the question will return, what, in the sense of the law, are necessary repairs? The text writers on this subject merely use the words necessary repairs without proceeding to describe, except in very vague and general terms, what they are. In what sense, then, is the word necessary used in this connection? Is it in the strict sense, repairs that are indispensable to enable the vessel to proceed on her voyage, or is it in a more loose sense, such as are proper, fit and suitable under the circumstances? This question was raised and very fully considered by the Circuit Court, in the case of the ship *Fortitude*, 3 *Sum.*, 327, and the conclusion to which the court arrived, after a very elaborate examination of the theoretical writers, as well as the judicial decisions on the subject, was, that the word necessary was used in the latter sense, as including what was proper and suitable under the circumstances. The same doctrine, in substance, was held by Lord Tenderden in the case of Webster *vs.* Seehamp, 4 *Barn. & Ald.* 354. The proper test to determine what, in the sense of the law, are necessary repairs, is found by inquiring what a prudent owner, having a proper regard to the safety of the property at risk, and the security of the lives of the crew would do if he were present. In this case, the repairs ordered by the master

were only such as were recommended as necessary by the surveyors, in their report, and this, it appears to me, is sufficient to exonerate the master from any imputation of bad faith.

But the most difficult objection to be overcome, is the charge of meditated fraud, not on the owners of the vessel but on the underwriters. To enable the owners to perpetrate the fraud, two sets of papers and accounts were made up by the libellant—one for the owners, by which the matter was to be settled and the payment made. This account made the whole cost of the repairs to be $4,460 83 Deducting $310 60 for cash received of the master, $216 85, the avails of the sale of the cargo, $250 discounted by Pland, the contractor, who made the repairs, left $3,683 38 as the amount actually advanced by the libellant, and adding the maritime premium, $193 87, it amounts to $3,877 25. For this sum a bill of exchange was drawn by Arey on Seth Pratt, the father of the master and owner, he having been left at St. Michael, and not expected to return in season to meet the bill. Together with the bill, a written agreement was sent, by which the libellants agreed to discount the maritime interest and to take $3,683 38 in satisfaction of the bond, provided the bill was duly honored and the payment promptly made.

With these papers, another package of accounts and papers was sent for the use of the owners in adjusting and settling the loss with the underwriters. These accounts showed the cost of the repairs to amount to $4,712 57, and after deducting $216 85, the sum received from the sale of the remains of the cargo, but without any deduction for the cash received of the master or the discount of the contractor, left the amount advanced by Carvington $4,591 42, and for this sum the bond was executed, which, with the addition of the maritime premium, amounts to $5,050 56. The reason given by Carvington, in his letter to Seth Pratt, to whom the papers were sent, for preparing this duplicate set of accounts, is, that it was "done to protect your son's interest; for, doubtless, you are aware that there are many charges attending vessels similarly circumstanced as the Ann C. Pratt, which the insurers and the underwriters will not admit; consequently owners of vessels have to protect their interests and make up their accounts in such a form as their officers will permit of." After this explanation of the fabricated papers and accounts, he proceeds to say—"The other packages of papers relate to the owners, and in the account current, which will there be found, the facts and original charges are those set forth, showing the balance due us to be only $3,877 25, and for which amount Captain Arey has given us a draft on you, and we have an agreement with him, as we do have with all others, who favor us with their business, similarly circumstanced, that we are to relinquish the 10 per cent maritime premium, which persons making advances on vessels enact."

The calm self-possession and air of frankness with which all this is disclosed, would lead one to suppose that such practices belonged to the ordinary usages and common business habits of the place; and I feel a secret persuasion that I might do injustice to Messrs. Carvington & Co., to impute to them a greater looseness of mercantile morality than is customary in such transactions in that community, or perhaps in other commercial places under like circumstances. But I feel bound to say that I cannot view such practices, even if sanctioned to some extent by custom, in the same light in which the interested parties appear to contemplate them, and I trust that I shall be doing no disservice to the general interests of Commerce by suggesting that they cannot be tolerated in a court of justice.

The letter of Carvington shows that the bond was executed for a larger sum than was due, and that false accounts were fabricated to support the bond and to enable the owners to extort from the underwriters a larger sum than by their contract they were bound to pay. It being apparent that the bond is tainted with fraud, can an action be maintained upon it? In the Admiralty, a bond may be good for a part and bad for a part. If others are mixed up, and in it demands for which the creditor is not entitled to claim maritime interest, as for money which had been previously advanced on the personal credit of the owner, with other advances for which he had stipulated for this security, this will not vitiate

the bond *in toto*. He may recover upon it so much of the consideration as is good, and it will be rejected for the residue. The "Aurora," 1 *Wheat.* 69. The "Hero," 2 *Dodson*, 146. The ship "Packet," 3 *Mason*, 259. But I am not aware that this equitable indulgence has ever been extended to a fraudulent bond. From the language of Lord Stowell, in the case of the "Tartas," 1 *Haggard*, 14, i., infer the contrary. "This court, he says, "proceeding on principles of general equity, does not hold that a bottomry, bad in part, necessarily vitiates the rest." But he immediately adds, "It may be invalidated by a case of fraud and the ill-conduct of the party; and if such a charge could be established, then indeed this bond would share the part of the other unprofitable transactions connected with this vessel." A plain intimation that a bond tainted by fraud is, even in the Admiralty, a totally void instrument.

The fraud to which Lord Stowell alludes, is undoubtedly a fraud on the owners, and, in the present case, as all the facts were disclosed and explained, no fraud was intended or attempted on them. But in its original connection, it was intended to operate as a fraud on the underwriters, who were ultimately to bear the loss; and in morals, it certainly makes no difference, and ought to make none in law, whether the fraud was intended to affect the primary or the ultimate party who was to suffer by the loss. But even if the insurers are to be considered as third persons and strangers to the transaction, a bond is sometimes, even by the rigid rules of the common law, held to be void when it is intended to operate as a fraud on a third person, though it may be perfectly fair and unimpeachable between the parties. Such was the case of Boynton *vs.* Hubbard, 7 *Mass. Rep.* 112. That action was on a *post obit* bond, and though the jury found that the transaction was fair and free from fraud between the parties, judgment was arrested and the bond held to be void on principles of public policy applicable to such transactions, because it operated as a fraud on third persons. And it appears to me that such a bond as this, framed with a view of practicing a fraud on underwriters, ought to be held void, though as between the immediate parties there was no fraud. It is easy for parties in foreign countries to make up accounts and find vouchers to sustain exaggerated losses, and it is difficult for underwriters to detect the fraud that is concealed under fabricated papers. They are obliged to increase their premiums on fair and honest shipowners to cover risks of this kind. And it seems to me that when a bottomry creditor lends himself to a transaction of this kind, though he may not derive any direct profit from it himself, that a proper regard to the best interests of fair and honest trade, as well as a due respect for commercial morality, requires that the bond should be held to be void, and the creditor left to seek such other remedy for the amount justly due as his case admits. Under these views of the subject, I must pronounce against the bond. If I have come to a wrong conclusion, I am happy that my opinion is open to be renewed by a higher court.

But though the bond be void, this does not of necessity vitiate the consideration for which it was given, so far as it was meritorious. For repairs and supplies furnished, the law gives a lien on the vessel without any instrument of hypothecation, which the creditor may enforce by process *in rem*. The counsel for the libellant has amended his libel by filing an allegation to meet this posture of the case, founded on the consideration, in which he claimed the actual amount advanced for the repairs and supplies. This I have no doubt of his right to recover. In the account current which is supported by regular vouchers, this appears to be $3,683 38. But this being awarded on the hypothecation implied by law, does not carry maritime interest.

AREY, libellant, *vs.* The ANN C. PRATT.

The libel of Arey for his wages was argued and heard at the same time, and on the same evidence with that on the bottomry bond. But in considering the mate's claim for wages, his own deposition, which was admitted in the case of bottomry, ("Fortitude," 3 *Sumner*,) must be excluded. The exclusion, however, of this part of the evidence, does not materially change the the aspect of the case. The objection to the mate's libel is, that he forfeited his wages by misconduct;

and the facts relied upon to show his alleged misconduct sufficiently appear from the testimony of the other witnesses.

The principal cause of forfeiture insisted upon is the alleged misconduct of Arey at St. Michael. When blown off by stress of weather from the island, it is said that it was his duty to bring the vessel back and restore the command to the master, and that the condition of the vessel and the state of the weather being such as to render this practicable, if not clearly the safest and most prudent course to be taken, his determination to bear away for the distant isle of St. Thomas, can reasonably be accounted for on no other supposition than a determination to leave the master, and assume for the remainder of the voyage the command himself. If such was the fact it was a gross violation of duty, and the lightest penalty with which it ought to be visited would be a forfeiture of his wages.

Two experienced shipmasters were examined as experts on this question; and with all the facts explained to them, with respect to the condition of the ship and the state of the weather, they expressed a clear opinion that the vessel might with safety have been carried back to the island, and that a judicious and prudent navigator would have done this rather than bear away for a distant port as that of St. Thomas. Their opinion is, undoubtedly, entitled to much consideration, but it cannot, even admitting its correctness, be held to be decisive of the present case.

The question here is not precisely, whether this on the whole was the most advisable and prudent course to be taken, but whether it was so clearly and manifestly so, that no man of ordinary judgment could have mistaken it. Arey, like every other man, is entitled to the ordinary presumption in his favor, that he has acted fairly and honestly, until this is overcome by satisfactory evidence. But Arey also, like every other man who offers himself for a particular service, engages and pledges himself both for his competency and his fidelity. A mate may be degraded and put before the mast, as well for want of skill as for want of faithfulness. And we are bound to suppose that he had a reasonable degree of skill and experience in seamanship and navigation to enable him to take the command and manage the vessel on the happening of any casualty which separated the master from the ship. This is one of the contingencies that is contemplated by his contract.

Up to this time the conduct of the mate seems to have been entirely unexceptionable, and we are not justified in imputing to him wilful misconduct, on doubtful and inconclusive evidence. By a casualty, for which no blame attached to him, he was left in the command of the vessel, and was obliged to act under trying circumstances, and such as involved considerable danger. Taking all the evidence together, it appears to me that there was but one of two courses which could with propriety be taken: either to return to the island and rejoin the master, or bear away for a West India port. Had he attempted to return and the weather continued as it had been for the preceding fortnight or three weeks, the vessel and the lives of all on board would have been exposed to no inconsiderable danger. The brig had, during the whole voyage, leaked badly, and she had shown herself unfit to contend with tempestuous weather. By steering for St. Thomas, it was known that in a short time she would take the trade winds, when the wind would be in their favor, with an assurance of favorable weather. They might then with confidence calculate on saving themselves and the ship. We have the opinion of two respectable and experienced shipmasters, that, under all the circumstances, the proper course would have been to return to the island. Arey chose the other. If it be admitted that the opinion of the shipmasters is the most probable, is the case so clear as to leave no room for an honest difference of opinion; so clear that we are driven to impute the conduct of the mate to dishonest and fraudulent motives? I think not. Granting that it might have been more judicious to have attempted to return to the island, the determination of Arey to proceed to St. Thomas, at the worst was but an error of judgment, and such an error as it would be very harsh to ascribe to a fraudulent and dishonest purpose.

In procuring the repairs to be done at St. Thomas, I see nothing in the evidence that gives a serious countenance to the charge of fraud. The expense was probably somewhat more than the same labor and materials would have cost in her home port, perhaps something more than would have been the cost if the owner had been present to superintend the repairs. But this is, I presume, not unfrequently the case when vessels are repaired under such circumstances. On the whole, I find nothing in the mate's conduct which will justify the court in refusing to him his wages; but they are allowed on the contract price, and nothing can be given, in this case, extra for his service as master.

ACTION OF COVENANT WHEN ON AN AWARD OF REFEREES.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, March Term, 1852. Azor Maynard *vs.* Jabez Frederick.

This was an action of covenant, broken on an award for $220 87, with interest and the costs of reference, amounting to $15, rendered under a submission, the material portions of which are as follows:

"Know all men hereby, that whereas Azor Maynard and Jabez Frederick, both of Boston, in the county of Suffolk, have heretofore had trades and dealings together, and trade and dealings with other persons, in which they were interested, or however otherwise; and, whereas there exists a difference of opinion as to the just and equitable rights of each, relative to, or in matters growing out of, said trade and dealings, or however otherwise: Now, therefore, in order that a just and equitable settlement shall be made between the said Maynard and the said Frederick, and the true balance of account which shall be due from one to the other, if any, shall be determined, the said Maynard and Frederick agree to submit all matters in dispute, touching the trade and business hereinbefore referred to, or however otherwise, to the arbitration and determination of Thomas Lord, Reuben Lovejoy and Seth Whittier, all of whom are mutually chosen and agreed upon as referees, by the said Maynard and said Frederick, and the said M. and F. agree to appear before the said referees, with such evidence as they shall consider expedient, and will give evidence before said referees, of all matters relating to said matters submitted to them.

And after hearing the parties, &c., and the evidence they or either of them shall produce, the said referees shall proceed to consider the matters and the evidence, and shall make up an award in dollars and cents in favor of the one or the other, if, upon the whole, they shall consider that any sum is or shall be due from the one of said parties to the other; which award, so to be made up by said referees, or by a majority of them, shall be final and binding upon both of said parties, and shall be in full settlement and discharge from one to the other, of and concerning, and in respect to their said trade and dealings, from the commencement thereof to the date of this agreement, &c., &c." Dated July 8, 1847.

The award was signed by Lord and Whittier only, and at the trial in the Court of Common Pleas, before Wells, C. J., it was proved, 1st. That no oath was administered to the witnesses who testified before the referees; 2d. That one of the referees refused to agree to or sign the award; 3d. That at the last meeting, at which all three were present, Lord, the chairman drew up the award and signed it; Lovejoy refused to sign, and Whittier declined to sign it then, alleging that Lovejoy's refusal made it necessary for him to give the subject more consideration; that a day or two after, a messenger called and asked him to go to Lord's; he went, conversed with Lord about it, and then signed it, Lovejoy not being present or notified of the meeting. This evidence, however, was controverted by the plaintiff, who introduced evidence tending to show that, at said meeting, two of the referees agreed upon the award to be made, and thereupon the chairman drew it up and signed it; that Lovejoy refused to sign it, and Whittier said, in consequence of this refusal, he would take time to consider. The referees separated, and upon reflection Whittier decided to sign it, and upon request to go to Lord's place of business for this purpose, went and signed, in

pursuance of his previous determination, without being influenced by any suggestion then made; 4th, that it was sent to Lovejoy, who refused to sign; 5th. That in making their award, the arbitrators went behind the following receipt which had passed between the parties.

"$200. Received of Azor Maynard, two hundred dollars in full for rent of wharf to April 1st; also in full of all demands to date. Boston, April 1, 1847.
(Signed) JABEZ FREDERICK."

And the defendant contended that the award should be set aside: Because, 1. The witnesses should have been sworn, by the terms of the submission. 2. The award should have been unanimous. 3. The award, as Whittier signed under the influence of Lord, at a meeting where Lovejoy was not present, and of which he was not notified, was inconsistent with law and with the terms of the submission. 4. There was not sufficient evidence that the award was submitted to Lovejoy, which was necessary. 5. The referees exceeded the submission by going behind the receipt.

But the court ruled that it was not necessary to administer an oath to the witnesses, nor that the award should be unanimous; that it was necessary for a majority of the referees to agree upon the award at a regular meeting, and if then agreed upon, reduced to writing and signed by one of the assenting arbitrators, and the other, who had previously agreed to it, took some time to reflect, and after reflection decided to adhere to his original determination, and then voluntarily, and without being influenced by any one, signed the award, it would be valid, so far as this objection was concerned; that it was necessary that Lovejoy should have been notified to be present when the award was agreed upon, and it was left to the jury, whether he was notified or present, or had reasonable opportunity to assent or object to the award; and that the arbitrators, if it was necessary, in their opinion, to affect a just settlement between the parties, might go behind the receipt.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff, and the defendant excepted to the foregoing rulings. He also maintained in this court, that the arbitrators had no power to award costs, and that the award was vitiated by including them.

C. T. Russell for the plaintiff. J. C. Park for the defendant.

The opinion of the court was delivered by BIGELOW, J.

The award is not invalidated by the omission to administer an oath to the witnesses. References are not bound by the strict rules of evidence applied in courts; they may, for example, examine interested witnesses. And however this might be, the defendant cannot be permitted to stand by when such a course is adopted, and afterwards object to it. His permitting it, *sub silentio*, is a waiver of any objection. It is urged that there was no consultation among the arbitrators, but this is not supported by facts, and is overthrown by the finding of the jury, who were instructed that it was necessary a majority should agree upon the award at a regular meeting. The jury have found that there was such a meeting, at which a majority did agree. But it is said that one of the referees refused to sign the award; this was of no consequence; if the majority had power to determine the matter submitted, and he refused to act, it was competent for them to meet alone. Carpenter *vs.* Wood, 1 *Met.* 409. It is further argued that no one asked for time. But he had agreed to the award; no further consideration was necessary, unless he changed his mind, and nothing was wanting but his signature.

That the award was signed by a majority only, would be sufficient to avoid it, were it not for the express agreement that it should be binding if "made up by said referees, or a majority of them. Towne *vs.* Jaquith, 6 *Mass.* 46.

The right of the referees to go behind the receipt of April 1st, depends on the agreement of submission, which comprises "all matters in dispute, touching the trade and business hereinbefore referred to, or however otherwise," while the award was to be "in full settlement and discharge, concerning the said trade and dealings, from the commencement thereof to the date of the agreement," the trade and dealings being described as such as they had "heretofore" had together,

&c., &c. Under this submission, it was competent for the arbitrators to go behind the receipt. There was no limit as to time, and they were not restricted to matters subsequent to its date. The receipt was not in itself conclusive, if erroneous from fraud or mistake, and it would be a much stronger objection to the award if they had refused to go behind it, under such circumstances, than that they disregarded it.

The objection that the arbitrators had no power to award costs, is well taken, so far as it affects that part of the award, which is bad only for so much as is thus awarded. The plaintiff may remit the costs, and have judgment for the remainder. The other exceptions are overruled, and the costs being remitted, judgment may be entered on the verdict for the plaintiff.

CREDIT OBTAINED FOR GOODS BY ALLEGED FRAUD.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (Cincinnati, Ohio, June 7, 1852,) before Judge Piatt.

McCoy *et al. vs.* Perkins, Woodruff *et al.* In this case Perkins, as is alleged, obtained by fraud credit for a large amount of goods, ($18,000,) and in completion of previous design, is arrested in the act of disposing of them to various persons, to whose stores, in the night season, he is delivering them. A bill was filed, upon which an injunction was allowed and a receiver appointed. The argument arose upon a motion to dissolve the injunction so far as C. S. Woodruff, the auctioneer, was considered, upon the ground that he was an innocent purchaser from Perkins.

Judge Piatt held, that an allegation set forth that "defendant fraudulently sold and disposed of goods for the purpose of defrauding his creditors, to a person well knowing the intent," brought the case within the meaning of the statute passed March 14, 1831, directing the mode of proceeding in chancery, which reads, that if any one "is about to convey, assign, conceal, or dispose of his property with intent," &c., as such actually perpetrated, is more positively within the meaning of the statute than when it is only intended.

Judge Piatt remarked that this was one of a class which is tending to cast shame upon the good name of the merchant, and if permitted to go unpunished, bring our courts into contempt. Debts are contracted under various pretenses for the sole purpose of fraud, and collectors come among us in the shape of sheriffs, to be satisfied by writs of *habeas corpus*. This is one of the most striking instances. It is not sought to be denied that Perkins, from the start, intended to swindle, and among those receivers of, I could almost say, stolen goods, I am asked to discriminate in favor of Woodruff, and why? Can any one look at the facts, as exhibited, and believe him an innocent purchaser? To think so, we must consider him devoid of all prudence or common sense. He purchases goods to the amount of $8,000 upon an invoice furnished, as he claims, by a total stranger, and at a moment's notice. Yet how does this agree with the fact that he consults his counsel as to the nature of the writings, and secures a witness to the payment of $3,000. He cannot take time, or use ordinary prudence in examining the stock he purchases, yet he advises over an ordinary bill of sale, and takes counsel upon a note of hand. He has sufficient caution and foresight to come into this court armed, apparently, at all points. He must have anticipated a storm somewhere, for he shields himself behind Mr. Blackburn's well known character, by making that person an innocent witness of the sale.

It is difficult to say how Woodruff could have got to the store of Wm. Perkins without being warned. The place is fairly hedged in by information. Eshelby, looking from his shoe store over the way, sees rascality; Rooney, a very quiet man, knows all about it; the sheriff is on guard, and creditors are besieging the premises—yet Woodruff goes and comes in entire ignorance.

I can well understand why Perkins should be swift. The creditors, headed by the officers, are close upon his heels—they drive him into Woodruff's auction store, and he has no time for delay. But what is the trouble with Woodruff? Why should he lose all presence of mind and prudence? It may be that, in his

anxiety to secure a great bargain, he forgot himself, but the evidence does not so indicate. I believe there was a combination between the parties, and so believing, will sustain the injunction.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL ACTIVITY IN COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—RAPID INCREASE IN THE AMOUNT OF STOCKS AND BONDS THROWN UPON THE MARKET—NEW ORLEANS CONSOLIDATED LOAN—CONTINUED EASE IN THE MONEY MARKET—QUARTERLY RETURNS OF THE NEW YORK BANKS—GENERAL BANKING LAW OF CONNECTICUT—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT UNITED STATES MINTS FOR JUNE—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR—LAWS OF TRADE BETTER THAN HUMAN LEGISLATION, ILLUSTRATED BY THE REGULAR SUPPLY OF THE NECESSARIES OF LIFE—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR—COMPARATIVE IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR THE SAME PERIOD, SHOWING THE DESCRIPTION OF FABRICS RECEIVED—COMPARATIVE RECEIPTS OF CASH DUTIES FOR THREE YEARS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR—COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE—FRAUDULENT ASSOCIATIONS.

THE Review for this month is usually uninteresting, from the fact that many active business men are absent from the great commercial centers, seeking recreation in the country or at some fashionable retreat. Not unfrequently also, the cholera or some other devastating epidemic has made its appearance and hurried away those who would else have lingered in the haunts of business. But the present summer has been comparatively healthy in the large cities, and, although there has been much bustling to and fro, and many departures, the regular routine of commercial affairs has been less interrupted than usual. Capital is still freely offered, and at lower rates of interest. The disturbance among the fisherman has caused a cloud on our north-eastern horizon, to which the timid have occasionally turned a furtive glance, but there has been no general apprehension of any serious difficulty. Large amounts of stocks and bonds are created almost daily, and thrown upon the market, which seems to suit its capacity to the quantity offering. We have been frequently asked to give our opinion in regard to the security of such investments, but could not do so without making invidious distinctions. Should our national prosperity be uninterrupted, it is probable that nearly all of the companies who have thus borrowed a portion of their capital, will be able to pay the interest promptly. Most of the bonds thus introduced, propose 7 per cent as the rate of interest, and have been negotiated, or sold by auction without very material depreciation. The Milwaukee and Mississippi bear 8 per cent interest, and were taken at an average of 96.36. They are now held at par, and are slowly, but surely, gaining in public estimation. The city of New Orleans called for proposals for a loan of $2,000,000, the proceeds to be applied to the extinguishment of the present floating liabilities of the first, second, and third municipalities, and the city of Lafayette, which are united under one financial government. The bonds bear interest at the rate of 6 per cent per annum, and are secured by a most ample provision for the payment of both principal and interest. The bids were opened at the office of Messrs. Corning & Co., in the city of New York, on the 19th of July. It was generally supposed that the stigma of repudiation, which has been fastened upon State securities in that quarter, would operate against the bonds

in question, and few were prepared for a higher rate than 90 a 92 per cent. This is manifest from the fact that many who bid a fraction over 91, at which twice the amount was offered, expected to obtain at least a portion of the loan. Above these there was one offer for $1,000,000 at par, and the successful bid for the entire loan at $100 68. This, deducting the accruing interest, brings the bonds down nearly to par, and we are very much mistaken if at this they are not among the cheapest investments made during the year. The bid, it is understood, was on foreign account, and our remarks will not, therefore, have anything to do with its market value.

The ease in the money market has led to the general belief that the banks were greatly extended, and many have supposed that this extension was beyond a safe limit. Recent returns show that this is not the case. The banks of the State of New York have been called on by the Controller for their quarterly statements, and the New York city banks have completed their returns, which give us in round numbers the following comparison:—

Date.	Capital.	Loans and discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Private Deposits.
June 26, 1852.....	$35,343,000	$81,873,000	$12,156,000	$8,202,000	$50,108,000
March 27, 1852.....	35,137,870	71,550,054	9,716,070	7,671,989	43,415,125
December 20, 1851...	35,133,640	64,141,399	7,364,439	7,073,345	34,631,459
September 20, 1851..	34,603,100	65,426,353	6,032,463	7,376,113	36,640,617
March 29, 1851.....	28,875,855	68,106,072	7,955,640	7,048,973	36,500,522

This may be varied a trifle by the official returns, but is near enough for all practical purposes.

It shows an increase in coin of $2,440,000, thus reducing the relative proportion between the loans and discounts and the specie basis. But even this difference does not fully indicate the real strength of their position. The increase in loans and discounts, amounting to $10,300,000, is made up almost wholly by temporary loans of the increased deposits which can be called in at a moment's warning. We doubt if the time-loans of the banks in question are as large as they were at the date of the previous return. A large amount of the best business paper has been placed in the hands of private capitalists, and the banks have large sums loaned upon the most substantial stocks subject to call. There appears at present to be no danger of any sudden and unexpected demand for money. It is not at all unlikely, as the fall business commences, that more capital will be required, and the competition among business men may cause a slight strengthening of rates. Such a movement would have a most salutary effect by checking rash enterprises, and limiting the expansion of the over-sanguine.

The Legislature of Connecticut has passed a general banking law since our last, and we annex a summary of its principal provisions.

It authorizes the Treasurer of the State to procure suitable bank-bills to be issued under the provisions of the Act. It provides that associations for banking purposes shall consist of not less than twenty-five residents of the State, with a capital of not less than $50,000, or more than $1,000,000, half to be paid in before commencing operations, and the other moiety within one year. The circulating notes are to be countersigned in the office of the Treasurer of the State, and issued to the associations, upon the deposit of the stock of the United States, either of the New England States, the States of New York, Ohio, Penn-

sylvania, Virginia, and Kentucky; the cities of New York and Boston, or of any incorporated city in the State of Connecticut; all such securities to be taken not above par, and to be made equal to a 6 per cent stock. Upon non-payment of the notes upon presentation, they may be protested; and if not paid within ten days thereafter, with costs, the Treasurer must sell out the stock and call in the circulation; the holders of the bills under protest being entitled to 12 per cent interest until they are paid. The Treasurer conjointly with the School Commissioner, whenever in their judgment it is necessary for the safety of the bill-holders, may require the deposit of additional security by giving due notice to the parties. The stockholders, in addition to their stock, are made individually liable for all debts of the association to an equal amount.

The officers of the association must make annually, and as much oftener as directed by the Treasurer, a full statement of its affairs, to be published at its own expense.

There was no seeming necessity for a general banking law in Connecticut, and its enactment was of course strongly opposed by the banks already chartered in the State, but the provisions of the new Act possess but few objectionable features.

In our Journal of Banking will be found a complete statement of the deposits and coinage of gold at the United States Mints, from the date of their organization down to the 31st of May. We now present our usual statement for the month of June:—

DEPOSITS FOR JUNE.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$258,795	$379,092	$6,580,000	$6,687,000
Silver	1,479	9,497	20,000	27,400
Total	$260,274	$388,589	$6,600,000	$6,714,400

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	11,000	$220,000	168,170	$3,363,400
Eagles	.....	.....	22,630	226,300
Half-eagles	.....	.....	41,633	208,165
Quarter-eagles	20,000	50,000	97,670	244,175
Gold dollars	.....	.....	227,875	227,875
Total gold coinage	31,000	$270,000	557,978	$4,269,915

SILVER COINAGE.

Half-dollars	20,000	$10,000	.....	.....
Dimes	150,000	15,000	105,000	$10,500
Half-dimes	260,000	13,000	.....	.....
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	1,850,700	55,521
Total silver coinage	430,000	$38,000	1,955,700	$66,021

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	.....	.....	936,788	$9,367
Total coinage	461,000	$308,000	3,450,466	$4,345,303

The total deposits for coinage at our mints of California gold, since its discovery to date, amount to nearly $130,000,000; and the total *production* of the California mines may be safely estimated at $200,000,000.

We are now enabled to present some important statistics of the Commerce of the country for the fiscal year which expired on the 30th of June; by which it will be seen that our previous estimates of the course of our foreign trade, have been fully vindicated. Many predictions were put forth, in certain quarters, concerning the ruin which should come upon the country by the overstock of foreign goods; and the assertion that there could be no falling off in our receipts, unless the government interposed, has been more than once repeated. Our own opinion, heretofore fully given, has been that the *laws of trade* would regulate this matter, far better than could be done by mere human legislation. It is strange that with such experience of the wisdom of the Divine Lawgiver, men should be so afraid to trust themselves in this, to the same rules which govern them in other cases. Take, as an illustration, the supply of food necessary for the daily subsistence of a large city with a population of half a million. What an immense amount of provision is consumed there in a single day! What government would undertake to feed so great a multitude, with such a variety of luxuries as they now enjoy? What could mere human legislation do, toward limiting the supply, so that there should be nothing lacking and nothing wasted? If, in the changing seasons, some article of usual consumption fails, who would undertake to supply its exact equivalent in another commodity, so that there should be no essential want or waste? Place the population of New York city in the most uncultivated of our inland States, and soon the necessaries, and even the luxuries of life, would reach them methodically and without stint. Now, shall we undertake to regulate such supplies and demands by our petty laws, when the subject is not only far above our wisdom, but is already ordered for us by One who can make no mistake? Such restrictive policy is founded in selfishness, and cannot stand before the progress of light and truth. As shown in our last number, Commerce tends to unite all nations in a common brotherhood, and its direction should not, therefore, be entrusted to men of narrow minds.

In illustration of the workings of the laws of trade, we see at the port of New York, in the total receipts from foreign ports, for the fiscal year just closed, a falling off, as compared with the previous year, of $12,943,573, exclusive of specie. The apparent falling off in specie is $7,862,110, but this is owing to the fact, that during the previous year, some of the receipts of gold dust *via* Chagres, were entered as foreign imports. There is an increase in the receipts of free goods (chiefly tea and coffee) of $3,607,870, so that the decline in the receipts of dutiable goods is over $15,500,000. In the following table, the fifth column shows the total actual receipts from foreign ports, and the seventh column gives only the amount of such goods thrown upon the market. During the year 1850–51 (the totals of which are added at the foot of the table) the amount thrown upon the market was considerably less than the receipts at the port, more goods having been warehoused; for the year under review, the reverse is the case, the stock in bonded-warehouse having been drawn down more closely; so that the amount thrown into the channels of consumption is greater than the receipts:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1852, COMPARED WITH THE PREVIOUS YEAR.

	Entered for consumption.	Entered warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie	Total.	Withdrawn from warehouse.	Total thrown on market.
July.....	$12,374,701	$1,092,725	$1,027,481	$81,143	$14,506,050	$1,167,644	$14,650,969
August..	11,279,004	1,358,089	638,334	186,503	13,461,930	1,252,945	12,356,086
Septem'r.	8,384,172	864,916	366,153	115,550	9,730,791	1,669 304	10.535,179
October..	5,790,795	1,204,994	1,558,720	23,165	8,577,674	1,602,436	8,975,116
Novem'r.	4,399,085	938,056	415,838	218,473	5,971,452	1,377.100	6,410.496
Decem'r.	5,073,162	1,050,185	575,601	25,376	6,724,324	1,117,436	6,791,595
January..	8,854,311	1,381,594	1,041,456	104,736	11,012,097	1,584,632	11,315,155
February.	7,824,952	1,003,383	1,110,949	110.293	9,249,577	1,788,997	10,035,191
March...	9,302,024	916,519	1,843,938	525,421	12,587,902	1,605,849	13,277,232
April....	8,410,448	732.422	1,496.449	327,400	10,966,719	1,255.429	11,489,726
May.....	6,096,996	453,109	789.046	380.584	7,719,735	1,380.371	8.646.997
June.....	7,626,181	640,722	1,062.947	429,747	9,759,597	911,479	10,030,354
Total..	$94,345.831	$11,466.714	$11.926.912	$2,528,391	$120,267,848	$16,712.963	$125,514,096
Do. '50-1.	107,559,164	14,802,824	8,321,042	10,390,501	141,073,531	12,201,313	138,472,020

The falling off in the imports of merchandise, as shown above, has been more than half of it in dry goods, divided between woolen, cotton, silk, and linen fabrics, all of which have been received in smaller amounts. Miscellaneous dry goods, including embroideries, artificial flowers, gloves, matting, &c., show a slight increase, as will be seen by the following comparative summary:—

FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR.

Description of goods.	1850–51.	1851–52.		Difference.
Manufactures of wool.....	$17,067,031	$14,388,565	Decrease	$2,678,466
Manufactures of cotton.....	11,671,500	9,982,547	"	1,688,953
Manufactures of silk.....	24,858,850	22,319,951	"	2,538,899
Manufactures of flax.....	7,058,731	6,346,259	"	712,472
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	3,957,635	4,183,740	Increase	226,105
Total.....	$64,613,747	$57,221,062	Decrease	$7,392,685

But a small portion of this decrease occurred during the first six months of the fiscal year, that is, from July to December, inclusive; much the greater portion having accrued since the first of January:—

	1850–51.	1851–52.	Decrease.
First six months, (July to December.)....	$31,731,481	$29,964,465	$1,767.016
Last six months, (January to June).....	32,882,266	27,256,597	5,625,669
For the year.....	$64,613,747	$57,221,062	$7,392,685

We now annex full particulars of the imports of dry goods at New York for the year. The first table shows the amount of the various fabrics entered directly for consumption, to which the total of the second table (which contains the amount withdrawn from warehouse) is added, to make the total thrown upon the market. The third table shows the amount entered warehouse, to which the footing of the first table is added, to make the total receipts at the port:—

VALUE OF FOREIGN GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
July.....	$3,552,120	$2,354,643	$1,607,775	$1,193.817
August.....	2,254.069	1,736,232	943.925	870,116
September	1,380,248	1,293.205	546,523	600.073
October.....	576.580	416,738	314.028	229,166
November.....	379,399	285.303	267,516	264,439
December	225,717	690.489	806,972	676,453
January.....	1,600,098	1,806,322	1,843,441	1,308,452

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
February	1,273,619	990,291	1,452,882	938,177
March	1,134,479	1,132,921	1,123,009	1,002,885
April	918,580	762,030	698,757	768,902
May	586,350	397,305	237,349	277,851
June	1,068,752	688,785	428,923	330,785
Total	$14,950,011	$12,054,269	$9,771,100	$8,460,116
Add withdrawn	2,024,636	2,157,409	1,432,310	1,586,823
Total ent. for cons'on	$16,974,647	$14,211,678	$11,203,410	$10,046,939

CONTINUED.

	SILK.		FLAX.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
July	$4,572,161	$3,938,092	$741,095	$611,250
August	2,803,145	2,532,029	619,777	536,816
September	1,874,495	1,553,943	483,040	477,742
October	762,231	687,355	451,455	273,065
November	673,438	347,862	323,704	321,715
December	582,307	938,506	216,914	365,301
January	4,032,002	2,970,633	692,138	569,161
February	2,423,859	1,980,154	887,394	504,550
March	1,640,577	1,688,099	873,251	701,572
April	1,281,669	999,303	569,399	604,499
May	918,299	518,368	268,986	263,607
June	1,512,986	1,011,909	244,949	292,015
Total	$23,077,269	$19,161,253	$6,372,102	$5,521,293
Add withdrawn	1,181,048	2,342,742	595,067	851,704
Total ent. for consump'n	$24,258,317	$21,503,995	$6,967,169	$6,372,997

CONTINUED.

	MISCELLANEOUS.		TOTAL.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
July	$380,698	$453,476	$10,853,849	$8,546,276
August	383,468	382,831	7,004,384	6,058,024
September	342,098	331,601	4,627,804	4,256,564
October	202,295	195,475	2,306,589	1,801,799
November	240,445	148,685	1,884,502	1,358,009
December	123,195	201,299	1,455,105	2,872,048
January	540,204	451,243	8,707,883	6,605,811
February	419,240	349,486	6,456,994	4,762,658
March	399,988	519,964	5,171,304	5,044,941
April	259,456	291,033	3,727,861	3,425,767
May	124,013	246,796	2,135,097	1,703,427
June	176,670	103,338	2,432,280	2,426,832
Total	$3,592,670	$3,665,227	$57,763,152	$48,862,158
Add withdrawn	366,201	474,362	5,599,262	7,413,040
Total ent. for consump'n	$3,958,871	$4,139,589	$63,362,414	$56,275,198

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
July	$314,619	$318,717	$104,880	$157,371
August	453,417	297,124	201,480	121,313
September	361,100	494,484	117,801	107,154
October	151,313	78,782	48,803	48,188

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
November	54,997	52,948	49,675	84,911
December	111,360	78,650	58,168	89,071
January	105,827	214,102	254,224	280,601
February	90,176	201,935	202,950	311,647
March	84,552	143,427	171,836	229,213
April	117,031	149,562	140,401	144,867
May	76,800	70,584	52,646	37,902
June	103,444	62,094	29,446	24,586
Total withdrawn	$2,024,636	$2,157,409	$1,432,810	$1,586,823

CONTINUED.

	SILK.		FLAX.	
July	$124,574	$265,709	$24,695	$37,782
August	146,737	121,689	46,838	65,350
September	126,316	245,100	65,715	44,778
October	65,932	144,646	23,907	53,667
November	57,088	184,560	32,396	25,160
December	67,184	129,256	41,949	41,508
January	106,370	291,886	109,935	121,635
February	140,724	384,198	69,065	188,788
March	119,483	193,600	56,204	140,042
April	104,735	155,249	68,138	75,329
May	49,343	138,717	28,980	40,355
June	72,562	88,132	27,245	17,310
Total withdrawn	$1,181,048	$2,342,742	$595,067	$857,704

CONTINUED.

	MISCELLANEOUS.		TOTAL.	
July	$10,984	$21,109	$579,752	$800,688
August	8,912	19,767	857,384	625,242
September	23,816	31,059	694,748	922,575
October	6,263	68,538	296,218	393,821
November	18,176	56,083	212,332	353,662
December	58,338	50,957	336,999	384,442
January	58,950	22,320	630,306	930,544
February	42,685	63,071	545,600	1,149,639
March	46,165	50,674	477,240	756,956
April	50,252	56,554	480,557	531,561
May	28,615	26,705	236,384	314,263
June	19,045	7,525	251,742	199,647
Total withdrawn	$366,201	$474,362	$5,599,262	$7,413,040

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1851–52.
July	$486,339	$341,315	$393,933	$129,572
August	358,198	495,957	181,452	143,970
September	232,783	277,963	116,729	159,998
October	96,366	128,408	94,744	90,130
November	79,641	87,820	101,690	81,037
December	89,719	214,273	103,186	349,086
January	139,656	184,111	222,412	208,856
February	72,846	103,492	173,326	52,631
March	126,591	164,179	170,125	154,083
April	142,721	121,917	165,873	80,964

	WOOLEN.		COTTON.	
	1850–51.	1851–52.	1851–52.	1851–52.
May	107,244	109,736	92,118	89,519
June	234,916	105,125	144,811	32,565
Total ent. for warehousing	$2,117,020	$2,334,296	$1,900,400	$1,522,431
Add ent. for consumption	14,950,011	12,054,269	9,771,100	8,460,116
Total entered at the port	$17,067,031	$14,388,565	$11,671,500	$9,982,557

CONTINUED.

	SILK.		FLAX.	
July	$222,142	$268,318	$71,207	$45,003
August	181,543	371,652	70,028	92,295
September	232,520	184,289	56,833	137,148
October	63,977	494,462	63,647	98,658
November	57,224	172,607	49,068	101,206
December	54,043	145,876	30,185	143,176
January	206,005	837,357	54,855	66,839
February	196,362	150,177	32,402	8,662
March	211,348	132,333	116,799	37,520
April	135,904	203,334	59,923	48,171
May	111,418	111,309	59,082	26,580
June	109,085	66,984	23,100	19,708
Total ent. for warehousing	$1,781,581	$3,158,698	$686,629	$824,966
Add ent. for consumption	23,077,269	19,161,253	6,372,102	5,521,293
Total entered at the port	$24,858,850	$22,319,951	$7,058,731	$6,346,259

CONTINUED.

	MISCELLANEOUS.		TOTAL.	
July	$12,313	$27,465	$1,185,934	$811,673
August	7,526	38,693	798,747	1,142,567
September	25,521	90,092	664,886	849,490
October	20,912	73,081	339,647	884,739
November	45,597	66,542	338,220	509,212
December	50,671	21,651	277,814	874,063
January	42,253	24,402	664,681	1,321,565
February	70,171	45,685	545,107	360,647
March	43,392	52,762	668,255	549,877
April	24,467	45,301	468,908	499,707
May	9,777	19,817	379,639	306,961
June	12,345	13,022	524,257	257,404
Total ent. for warehousing	$364,965	$518,513	$6,850,595	$8,358,904
Add ent. for consumption	3,592,670	3,665,227	$57,763,152	$48,862,158
Total entered at the port	$3,957,635	$4,183,740	$64,613,747	$57,221,062

This falling off in the imports has resulted, of course, in a corresponding decrease in the receipts for duties, amounting at the port of New York to a decline of $2,991,284 93 from the preceding year. We annex a comparison for three years, beginning each year on the first of July:—

RECEIPTS OF CASH DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1849–50.	1850–51.	851–52.
First quarter	$7,645,956 08	$10,190,324 37	$9,402,997 30
Second quarter	3,811,743 60	4,827,205 32	5,025,600 18
Third quarter	6,996,656 48	9,295,257 30	7,617,887 72
Fourth quarter	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16
Total	$24,487,609 73	$31,670,195 29	$28,678,910 36

While the imports at the port, where more than three-fifths of the whole revenue is received, have thus declined, the exports have been without material change. The shipments of specie from New York to foreign ports have increased $10,650,972, and of foreign free goods, $389,825; while domestic produce, exclusive of specie, has fallen off $8,643,221, and foreign dutiable goods, $1,162,958; leaving a net increase over the preceding fiscal year of $1,233,825. The decline in the exports of domestic produce occurred previous to the 1st of January; for the last six months the shipments were $24,478,521, against $24,488,201 for the corresponding period of 1851, being a difference of only $10,000. We annex a monthly statement for the entire fiscal year, with a comparison of the totals for the last two years:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1852.

	Domestic Produce.	Foreign dutiable.	Foreign free.	Specie.	Total.
July	$3,188,027	$284,597	$2,311	$6,004,170	$9,478,905
August	3,259,594	334,549	22,974	2,673,444	6,290,561
September	2,593,936	316,047	134,271	3,490,142	6,534,446
October	2,702,382	358,292	106,626	1,779,707	4,947,007
November	2,451,511	397,597	62,368	5,028,996	7,945,472
December	2,512,436	351,428	21,918	5,668,235	8,554,017
January	2,419,296	358,244	26,693	2,868,958	5,673,191
February	3,352,943	322,272	93,932	3,551,543	7,320,690
March	4,313,245	357,230	100,557	611,994	5,383,026
April	4,244,044	353,262	67,719	200,266	4,865,291
May	4,249,924	545,978	104,818	1,834,893	6,737,608
June	3,566,369	482,594	125,500	3,556,355	7,730,818
Total	$38,853,757	$4,461,885	$871,687	$37,273,703	$81,461,032
Do. 1850–51	47,496,978	5,624,843	482,655	26,622,731	80,227,207

We continue our monthly statement of the comparative exports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports, from January 1st to July 17th, inclusive:—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots ....bbls.	11,516	9,577	Naval Stores....bbls.	193,181	230,818
Pearls	1,196	425	*Oils*—		
Beeswax.....lbs	173,079	147,790	Whale..... galls.	772,779	30,246
Breadstuffs—			Sperm.....	256,582	291,622
Wheat flour ..bbls.	512,356	671,547	Lard	180,445	18,495
Rye flour	5,755	7,040	Linseed	4,240	7,791
Corn meal.....	25,448	26,825	*Provisions*—		
Wheat.....bush.	383,702	761,021	Pork .....bbls.	27,823	21,457
Rye.....	.....	236,460	Beef.....	18,480	30,774
Oats.....	2,108	5,228	Cut meats.....lbs.	2,674,669	1,145,406
Barley.....	.....	347	Butter	1,559,640	382,215
Corn.....	1,221,253	620,377	Cheese	2,702,645	466,528
Candles—Mould. bxs.	24,194	37,209	Lard	3,674,145	2,038,177
Sperm	1,371	2,403	Rice.....tcs.	18,367	21,589
Coal..... tons	3,146	17,897	Tallow.....lbs.	1,863,477	260,719
Cotton.....bales	205,350	262,132	Tobacco—Crude.pkgs.	10,442	13,305
Hay.....	3,406	6,189	Man'd...lbs.	1,987,836	2,109,474
Hops.....	113	457	Whalebone.....	917,610	443,535

It will be seen from the above that the exports of cereals, with the single exception of Indian corn, are considerably in advance of last year. There is a falling off in the shipments of oils of over three-quarters of a million of gallons, owing to the high prices occasioned by the disasters among our whale fisheries. In several items of provisions there is also a decline, although there is an in-

crease in beef equal to 11,294 barrels, the tcs. and bbls. in our statement being all reduced to the latter denomination.

We cannot forbear, in conclusion, from warning the public against irresponsible associations of every description, which have sprung up all over the country, their success in imposture being almost guarantied by an easy money market, and the prevalence of a prosperous business. They swindle the emigrant and the immigrant; they sell "tickets" of passage to any part of the globe, and contract with parties here to bring their friends from abroad, in both cases defrauding their victims out of the whole or a good share of their money. They spring up in the merchandise line, and buy goods on credit that will never run out. They buy and sell land-warrants, locate grants, and collect pensions. They sell lottery tickets, pinchbeck watches, and galvanized pencil cases. Some of them take the form of building associations, where, in imitation of a few (how few!) really useful institutions of this class, they profess the most generous designs, but pocket the money of the gullible. They are multifarious in their plans and professions, but they all agree in real purpose; their methods of operation are new, but their principles are ancient; their whole system is but pocket-book dropping, or thimble-rigging on an enlarged scale, with fresh apparatus. Akin to this class, if not of it, are some new banking associations professedly located in the District of Columbia. They may be controlled by honorable men, but they are based on a system as rotten and irresponsible as the veriest humbug by which honest men were ever cheared out of their money. To avoid these impositions the only safe policy in every department of business is to follow only the legitimate trade; to reject all flattering overtures or offered services, which promise golden returns for trifling investments. There is no royal road to fortune; and if any offer, it is sure to be a decoy; those who wish to be on the top of the mountain, must needs bear the toil of the climbing.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

AVERAGE DIVIDENDS OF BOSTON BANKS.

The following statement, for which we are indebted to Mr. Foxcroft, exhibits the annual average dividends paid by twenty-three Boston banks, during fifteen years ending with 1851:—

Atlantic	per cent	5 27-30	Mechanics'	per cent	6 23-30
Atlas		4 11 30	Merchants'		7 3-30
Boston		7 6-30	New England		6 21-30
City		5 12-30	North		5 8-30
Columbian		6 3-30	Shoe and Leather Dealers'		7 8-30
Eagle		5 28-30	State		5 24-30
Freeman's		7 11-30	Suffolk		8 24-30
Globe		6 19-30	Traders'		5 14-30
Granite		5 27-30	Tremont		6 1-30
Hamilton		6 9-30	Union		6 9-30
Market		6 23-30	Washington		5 7-30
Massachusetts		5 17-30			

The above named are the only city banks that have been in operation throughout the last fifteen years. There were, in 1837, thirty-four banks in operation, but since then, eleven of them have closed up their affairs. Nine others have taken their places —there being now thirty-two banks established in Boston.

THE PRECIOUS METALS.

We present herewith a statement of the deposits and coinage of the precious metals at the United States Mint and branches, from the date of their organization down to the 1st of June, 1852. It will be seen that the receipts of domestic gold continue to increase, although not in as great a ratio as during the last year. How long it will be before the maximum is reached, it is of course impossible to tell. If the quartz rock in California is as rich as represented, it is possible that the quantity produced will be farther increased during the coming year. Our own impression has been that $50,000,000 per annum is the largest yield which can reasonably be expected, and that even this amount will not be continued for many years. The recent discoveries of gold in Australia may be but the prelude to other more startling developments of mineral treasure, in quarters where no search has yet been made, but we have no fears that it will be found in such quantities as greatly to depreciate in value, or to seriously impair the security of existing investments in other species of property. The impetus which it gives to production, will create a demand for fully as much capital as it will furnish, and thus the equilibrium between supply and demand be undisturbed. The Crescent City arrived recently with about $2,500,000 in gold dust, being one of the largest freights ever brought from that quarter. This will make the receipts here since the first of June, about $7,250,000, as $4,770,000 have already been deposited at the Philadelphia Mint. We are greatly indebted to R. Patterson, Esq., of the Philadelphia Mint, for his kindness in assisting to complete our tables, and for much valuable information heretofore furnished upon this subject. It will be remembered that the coinage at the Philadelphia Mint commenced in 1793, and at the branch mints in 1838. The Philadelphia Mint coins gold, silver, and copper; the New Orleans only gold and silver; and the other branches only gold.

STATEMENT OF THE COINAGE OF THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ITS BRANCHES FROM THEIR ORGANIZATION TO MAY 31ST, 1852.

PHILADELPHIA MINT.

Periods.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total coinage.
To the close of 1847	$52,741,350 00	$62,748,211 90	$1,145,591 21	$116,635,153 11
Do. 1848.....	2,780,930 00	420,050 00	64,157 99	3,265,137 99
Do. 1849.....	7,948,332 00	922,950 00	41,984 32	8,913,266 32
Do. 1850.....	27,756,445 50	409,600 00	44,467 50	28,210,513 00
Do. 1851.....	52,143,446 00	446,797 00	99,635 43	52,689,878 43
Five months 1852 ..	18,707,879 00	243,652 00	25,088 74	18,976,619 74
Total.....	$162,078,382 50	$65,191,260 90	$1,420,925 19	£228,690,568 59

NEW ORLEANS MINT.

Periods.	Gold.	Silver.	Total coinage.
To the close of 1847	$15,189,365	$8,418,700	$23,608,065
Do. 1848.....	358,500	1,620,000	1,978,500
Do. 1849.....	454,000	1,192,000	1,646,000
Do. 1850.....	3,619,000	1,456,500	5,075,500
Do. 1851.....	9,795,000	327,600	10,122,600
Five months 1852.....	3,015,000	46,000	3,061,000
Total	$32,430,865	$13,060,800	$45,491,665

Periods.	CHARLOTTE MINT. Gold.	DAHLONEGA MINT. Gold.	AT ALL THE MINTS. Gold, silver, & copper.
To the close of 1847.	$1,656,060 00	$3,218,017 50	$145,117,295 61
Do. 1848..... ..	264,330 00	271,752 50	5,879,720 49
Do. 1849.....	361,299 00	244,130 50	11,164,695 82
Do. 1850.....	347,791 00	258,502 00	33,892,306 00
Do. 1851.....	324,454 50	351,592 00	63,488,524 93
Five months 1852...	157,629 00	141,083 00	22,336,331 74
Total.....	$3,211,563 50	$4,485,077 50	$281,878,874 59

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF GOLD, OF DOMESTIC PRODUCTION, DEPOSITED AT THE MINT, AND ITS BRANCHES, FROM THEIR ORGANIZATION TO MAY 31st, 1852.

PHILADELPHIA MINT.

Periods.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	.....	$7,797,141	$7,797,141
Year 1848	$44,177	197,367	241,544
1849	5,481,439	285,653	5,767,092
1850	31,667,505	122,801	31,790,306
1851	46,939,367	135,153	47,074,520
Five months 1852	17,830,018	68,885	17,898,873
Total	$101,962,506	$8,606,970	$110,569,476

NEW ORLEANS MINT.

Periods.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	.....	$119,699	$119,699
Year 1848	$1,124	11,469	12,593
1849	669,921	7,268	677,189
1850	4,575,567	4,454	4,580,021
1851	8,769,682	1,040	8,770,722
Five months 1852	2,292,457	....	2,292,457
Total	$16,308,751	$143,930	$16,452,681

CHARLOTTE MINT.

Periods.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	.....	$1,673,718	$1,673,718
Year 1848	.....	370,785	370,785
1849	.....	390,732	390,732
1850	.....	320,289	320,289
1851	$15,111	300,950	316,061
Five months 1852	6,151	173,425	179,576
Total	$21,262	$3,229,899	$3,251,161

DAHLONEGA MINT.

Periods.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	.....	$3,218,017	$3,218,017
Year 1848	.....	271,753	271,753
1849	.....	244,131	244,131
1850	$30,025	217,673	247,698
1851	214,072	165,237	379,309
Five months 1852	71,466	68,971	140,437
Total	$315,563	$4,185,782	$4,501,345

AT ALL THE MINTS.

Periods.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	.....	$12,808,575	$12,808,575
ar 1848	$45,301	851,374	896,675
1849	6,151,360	927,784	7,079,144
1850	36,273,097	665,217	36,938,314
1851	55,938,232	602,380	56,540,612
Five months 1852	20,200,092	311,251	20,511,343
Totel	$118,608,082	$16,166,581	$134,774,663

From the above it will be seen that the deposits of California gold at our mints, for coinage, since its first discovery up to the first of June, amounts in round numbers to $118,600,000; to this add $7,250,000 for June, and the amount thus in hand is $125,850,000. It is probably safe to estimate the total production of the California mines to date, at nearly $200,000,000. The exports of gold from New York to foreign ports since the 1st of January last, are $12,000,000, and from other ports about

$2,000,000. The imports from abroad, regularly entered at the Custom-House, are about $1,500,000. In addition to this, a large sum in foreign coin is brought each month in the hands of immigrants. The total exports of coin from the country since the first receipts of gold from California, over and above the imports, still leave an increase of gold coin in this country of between forty and fifty millions of dollars; part of which has been added to the amounts on deposit in the banks, and the remainder is in circulation. We annex also a comparative statement of the deposits of gold at the mint and branches for the first five months of the last and current year:—

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF GOLD AT THE MINT AND BRANCHES IN THE FIRST FIVE MONTHS OF 1851 AND 1852.

RECEIPTS OF GOLD AT PHILADELPHIA.

	U. S. Gold.	Other gold.	Total.
First five months of 1851.....	$16,748,516	$324,816	$17,073,332
Do. 1852.....	17,898,873	533,232	18,432,105
Increase.....	$1,150,357	$208,416	$1,358,773

AT NEW ORLEANS.

First five months of 1851.....	$4,964,029	$85,105	$5,049,134
Do. 1852.....	2,292,457	74,273	2,366,730
Decrease.....	$2,671,572	$10,832	$2,682,404

AT CHARLOTTE.

First five months of 1851.....	$160,078	.....	$160,078
Do. 1852.....	179,576	.....	179,576
Increase.....	$19,498	.....	$19,498

AT DAHLONEGA.

First five months of 1851.....	$99,386	.....	$99,386
Do. 1852.....	140,437	.....	140,437
Increase.....	$41,051	.....	$41,051

AT ALL THE MINTS.

First five months of 1851.....	$21,972,009	$409,921	$22,381,930
Do. 1852.....	20,511,343	607,505	21,118,848
Increase.....	.....	$197,584	.....
Decrease	$1,460,666	.....	$1,263,082

We trust that Congress will, ere long, give us the new silver coin, made 7 per cent lighter than the present currency, so that it may be retained in the country. We also wish, if the dispute about a mint in this city must be continued, that an Assay Office might be established here at once, which would relieve our business community of the real difficulties connected with the present arrangement. The cost of such an establishment would be but trifling; the assayer might receive the dust on arrival, and the moment its value was ascertained, the proper officer give an order on the Assistant Treasurer here for the amount. The government could then transmit it to Philadelphia and coin it as its leisure; and when enough expense had been incurred in the useless effort to maintain a mint so far from the point where the gold arrives, it could be transferred to this city.

THE ASSESSMENT LIST OF CONNECTICUT.

It appears from a statement published in the New Haven *Journal and Courier*, that the assessment on the grand list of the State, bearing 3 per cent of the total value, with ten dollars for each taxable poll, excluding railroad and some other stocks,

amounts this year (1852) to $5,802,953 18, being an increase of about $1,100,000 over the previous year, (1851.) Hartford County stands first, having the largest population, and nearly the greatest territorial extent, but New Haven has been rapidly gaining upon her of late years. In 1849, the list of Hartford County exceeded New Haven by $137,084; now it exceeds it only $43,871. The several counties stand as follows:—

Hartford	$1,179,443 27	Litchfield	$681,540 91
New Haven	1,135,572 00	Middlesex	411,022 91
New London	801,848 90	Tolland	248,200 43
Fairfield	967,168 71		
Windham	378,156 05	Total	$5,802,953 18

The assessments on the Grand List of New Haven amount to	$474,973 99
Of Hartford	430,771 70
Of Norwich	169,385 53
Of New London	168,876 69
Of Bridgeport	138,895 08
Of Middletown	120,471 84
Of Waterbury	103,844 42

No other town in the State exceeds $100,000.

The list of New Haven amounts to nearly half the whole list of the county. It exceeds that of Hartford by $44,185 29, and Norwich, the next largest town, by over $300,000. The six cities of the State have an assessment of $1,503,377 83, or more than one-fourth of the whole wealth of the State.

BANKS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The following is a complete list of the Banks of the State of New York, with the names and residences of their respective agents at this date (July 1, 1852,) as prepared by D. B. St. John, Superintendent of the Bank Department, pursuant to the laws of 1851:—

Name of the Bank.	Location & P. O.	Agent.	Residence.
Adams Bank	Ashford	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Agricultural Bank	Herkimer	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Amenia Bank	Leedsville	George Jones	Albany.
American Bank	Mayville	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Ballston Spa Bank	Ballston Spa	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Bank of Albion	Albion	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Bank of Attica	Buffalo	New York State Bank	Albany.
Bank of Auburn	Auburn	New York State Bank	Albany.
Bank of Bainbridge	Penn Yan	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Bank of Cayuga Lake	Painted Post	Amasa S. Foster	N. York.
Bank of Central New York.	Utica	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Bank of Chemung	Elmira	Thomas Adams & Co	N. York.
Bank of Chenango	Norwich	New York State Bank	Albany.
Bank of Corning	Corning	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Bank of Dansville	Dansville	New York State Bank	Albany.
Bank of the Empire State	Burton	New York Exchange Bank	N. York.
Bank of Fishkill	Fishkill	Metropolitan Bank	N. York.
Bank of Fort Edward	Fort Edward	Commercial Bank of Troy	Troy.
Bank of Genesee	Batavia	Bank of Albany	Albany.
Bank of Geneva	Geneva	Henry Dwight, Jr	N. York.
Bank of Havana	Havana	Commercial Bank of Troy	Troy.
Bank of Kinderhook	Kinderhook	American Exchange Bank	N York.
Bank of Lake Erie	Buffalo	New York State Bank	Albany.
Bank of Lansingburg	Lansingburg	Pepoon & Hoffman	N. York.
Bank of Lowville	Lowville	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Bank of Malone	Malone	Union Bank of Troy	Troy.

Name of the Bank.	Location & P. O.	Agent.	Residence.
Bank of Newburg.....	Newburg.....	Merchants' Exchange Bank..	N. York.
Bank of Orange County....	Goshen	S. Van Duzer	N. York.
Bank of Orleans	Albion.....	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Bank of Owego.....	Owego.....	Henry Dwight, Jr.....	N. York.
Bank of Pawling.....	Pawling.....	Leather Manufacturers' Bank.	N. York.
Bank of Poughkeepsie.....	Poughkeepsie.	Merchants' Exchange Bank..	N. York.
Bank of Rome.....	Rome.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Bank of Rondout.....	Rondout	North River Bank	N. York.
Bank of Salina	Salina	Commercial Bank of Albany.	Albany.
Bank of Saratoga Springs..	Saratoga Spr's.	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Bank of Silver Creek.....	Silver Creek..	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Bank of Syracuse	Syracuse.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Bank of the Union.....	Belfast.....	Taylor Brothers	N. York.
Bank of Utica.....	Utica.....	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Bank of Vernon	Vernon Village	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Bank of Watertown.....	Watertown....	Bruce & Young.....	Albany.
Bank of Waterville	Waterville ...	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Bank of West Troy	West Troy ...	Mercantile Bank.....	N. York.
Bank of Whitestown	Whitestown ..	Commercial Bank of Albany.	Albany.
Bank of Westfield	Westfield	Drew, Robinson & Co.....	N. York.
Bank of Whitehall.....	Whitehall....	Mercantile Bank....	N. York.
Black River Bank.....	Watertown....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Broome County Bank.....	Binghamton ..	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Camden Bank	Camden.....	Commercial Bank of Troy...	Troy.
Canal Bank of Lockport ...	Lockport.....	Albany Exchange Bank.....	Albany.
Catskill Bank	Catskill	American Exchange Bank...	N. York.
Cayuga County Bank.....	Auburn.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Central Bank.....	Cherry Valley.	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Champlain Bank.....	Ellenburg.....	George Jones	Albany.
Chautauque County Bank ..	Jamestown....	Bank of Albany	Albany.
Chemung Canal Bank.....	Elmira.....	Commercial Bank of Troy...	Troy.
Chester Bank.....	Chester.....	S. Van Duzer & Son.	N. York.
Citizen's Bank.....	Ogdensburg ..	Delany, Dunlevey & Co.....	N. York.
Commercial Bank of Allegha- ny County	Friendship.....	Charles Colgate & Co.....	N. York.
Commercial Bank of Clyde..	Clyde.....	Albany Exchange Bank.....	Albany.
Com. Bank of Lockport.....	Lockport.....	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Com. Bank of Rochester.....	Rochester.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Com. Bank of Whitehall ...	Whitehall.....	Commercial Bank of Troy...	Troy.
Cortlandt County Bank	Ashford.....	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Cuyler's Bank	Palmyra	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Delaware Bank.....	Delhi.....	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Drovers' Bank of St. Law- rence County.....	Ogdensburg ..	Albany Exchange Bank.....	Albany.
Dunkirk Bank.....	Dunkirk.....	John Thompson.....	N. York.
Dutchess County Bank.....	Amenia.....	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Eagle Bank	Rochester.....	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Essex County Bank.....	Keeseville....	Mercantile Bank.....	N. York.
Excelsior Bank	Meridian.....	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Exchange Bank of Buffalo..	Buffalo.....	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Exchange Bank of Genesee.	Batavia.....	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Exchange Bank of Lockport.	Lockport.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Fallkill Bank.....	Poughkeepsie.	Metropolitan Bank	N. York.
Farmers' Bank of Amsterd'm	Amsterdam...	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Farmers' Bank of Humilton County.....	Arietta	Bernard & Crommelin,.....	N. York.
Farmers' Bank of Hudson...	Hudson.....	Mechanics' Bank.....	N. York.
Farmers' Bank of Mina	Mina	Amasa S. Foster.....	N. York.
Farmers' Bank of Saratoga County.....	Crescent	Albany Exchange Bank.....	Albany.
Farmers' and Drovers' Bank at Somers.....	Somers	Merchants' Exchange Bank..	N. York.

Name of the Bank.	Location & P. O.	Agent.	Residence.
Farmers' and Manufacturers' Bank	Poughkeepsie.	Phœnix Bank	N. York.
Farmers' & Mechanics' Bank of Genesee	Buffalo	New York State Bank	Albany.
Farmers' & Mechanics' Bank of Ogdensburg	Ogdensburg	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Farmers' & Mechanics' Bank of Rochester	Rochester	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Fort Plain Bank	Fort Plain	New York State Bank	Albany.
Fort Stanwix Bank	Rome	New York State Bank	Albany.
Franklin Bank of Chautauque County	Marvin	John Thompson	N. York.
Franklin County Bank	Malone	Groesbeck Brothers	Albany.
Freemen's Bank of Washington County	Hebron	George Jones	Albany.
Frontier Bank	Potsdam	Troy City Bank	Troy.
Genesee County Bank	Le Roy	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Genesee Valley Bank	Geneseo	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Glen's Falls Bank	Glen's Falls	Merchants' & Mechanics' B'k.	Troy.
Goshen Bank	Goshen	Ocean Bank	N. York.
Hamilton Exchange Bank	Hamilton	Commercial Bank of Troy	Troy.
Hartford Bank	Hartford	Phelps & Scovel	Albany.
Henry Keep's Bank	Watertown	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Herkimer County Bank	Little Falls	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Highland Bank	Newburg	Phœnix Bank	N. York.
H. J. Miner's Bank of Utica	Fredonia	Nelson Robinson	N. York.
Hollister Bank of Buffalo	Buffalo	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Hudson River Bank	Hudson	Metropolitan Bank	N. York.
Hungerford's Bank	Adams	Bank of Albany	Albany.
Jefferson County Bank	Watertown	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Kingston Bank	Kingston	Bank of State of New York.	N. York.
Kirkland Bank	Clinton	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Knickerbocker Bank	Genoa	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Lewis County Bank	Martinsburg	Washburn & Co	Albany.
Livingston County Bank	Geneseo	New York State Bank	Albany.
Lumberman's Bank	Wilmurt	J. Lewis Taylor	N. York.
Lockport Bank & Trust Co.	Lockport	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Luther Wright's Bank	Oswego	New York State Bank	Albany.
McIntyre Bank	Adirondac	New York State Bank	Albany.
Madison County Bank	Cazenovia	New York State Bank	Albany.
Marine Bank	Buffalo	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Mechanics' Bank of Syracuse	Syracuse	Albany City Bank	Albany.
Mechanics' Bank of Watert'n	Watertown	New York State Bank	Albany.
Merch'ts' B'k of Canandaigua	Naples	Groesbeck Brothers	Albany.
Merch'ts' B'k of Chautauque County	Mina	Phelps & Scovel	Albany.
Merch'ts' B'k of Erie County	Lancaster	New York State Bank	Albany.
Merch'ts' B'k in Poughkeepsie	Poughkeepsie.	Phœnix Bank	N. York.
Merch'ts' B'k in Syracuse	Syracuse	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Merch'ts' B'k of Washington County	Granville	F. P. James	N. York.
Merchants' and Farmers' B'k of Ithaca	Ithaca.	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Merchants' and Farmers' B'k of Putnam County	Carmel	Albany Exchange Bank	Albany.
Middletown Bank	Middletown	North River Bank	N. York.
Mohawk Bank	Schenectady.	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Mohawk Valley Bank	Mohawk	Bank of Albany	Albany.
Montgomery County Bank	Johnstown	Albany City Bank	Albany.
New York Bank of Saratoga County	Hadley	F. P. James	N. York.
New York Security Bank	Hope Falls.	Sather & Church	N. York.
New York Stock Bank	Durham	John Thompson	N. York.

Name of the Bank.	Location & P. O.	Agent.	Residence.
New York Traders' Bank of Washington County.....	N. Granville...	Henry C. Tanner.....	N. York.
Northern Bank of N. York..	Madrid	Houghton & Co.....	N. York.
Northern Exchange Bank...	Brasher Falls..	Houghton & Co.....	N. York.
Northern Canal Bank.....	Fort Ann.....	Henry C. Tanner.....	N. York.
Ogdensburg Bank.....	Ogdensburg ..	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Oliver Lee & Co.'s Bank....	Buffalo.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Oneida Bank.....	Utica.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Oneida Valley Bank	Oneida.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Onondaga County Bank.....	Syracuse.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Ontario Bank.....	Canandaigua..	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Ontario Branch Bank.....	Utica.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Otsego County Bank.....	Cooperstown..	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Oswego County Bank.....	Meridian.....	Washburn & Co.....	Albany.
Palmyra Bank.....	Newark.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Patchin Bank.....	Buffalo.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Phœnix Bank of Bainbridge.	Bainbridge....	Charles Sanford.....	N. York.
Pine Plains Bank.....	Pine Plains...	Henry Shelden & Co.....	N. York.
Powell Bank.....	Newburg.....	American Exchange Bank...	N. York.
Pratt Bank.....	Buffalo.....	Bank of Albany.....	Albany.
Prattsville Bank.....	Prattsville....	American Exchange Bank...	N. York.
Putnam County Bank.....	Farmers' Mills.	Washburn & Co.....	Albany.
Putnam Valley Bank.....	Peek-kill, P. O.	Washburn & Co.....	Albany.
Quassaick Bank.....	Newburg.....	Merchants' Exchange Bank..	N. York.
Rochester Bank.....	Rochester.....	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Rochester City Bank.....	Rochester.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Rome Exchange Bank.....	Rome.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Sacket's Harbor Bank.....	Sackets' Har'r.	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Salt Springs Bank.....	Syracuse.....	Henry Dwight, Jr.....	N. York.
Saratoga County Bank.....	Waterford....	Pepoon & Hoffman.....	N. York.
Schenectady Bank.....	Schenectady..	Commercial Bank of Albany.	Albany.
Schoharie County Bank.....	Schoharie.....	Bank of Albany.....	Albany.
Seneca County Bank.....	Waterloo.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
State B'k at Sacket's Harbor	Sacket's Har'r.	Henry Dwight, Jr.....	N. York.
State Bank at Saugerties...	Saugerties....	Anthony Lane.....	N. York.
Steuben County Bank.....	Bath.....	John Thompson.....	N. York.
Suffolk County Bank.....	Sag Harbor...	Metropolitan Bank.....	N. York.
Sullivan County Bank.....	Monticello....	North River Bank.....	N. York.
Syracuse City Bank.....	Syracuse.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Tanners' Bank.....	Catskill.....	American Exchange Bank...	N. York.
The City Bank, Oswego....	Oswego.....	Albany Exchange Bank.....	Albany.
Tompkins County Bank....	Ithaca.....	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Ulster County Bank.....	Kingston.....	Merchants' Exchange Bank..	N. York.
Unadilla Bank.....	Unadilla.....	William Watson & Co.....	Albany.
Union Bank of Sullivan Co..	Monticello....	Morford & Vermilye.....	N. York.
Utica City Bank.....	Utica.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Valley Bank.....	Boonville.....	Washburn & Co.....	Albany.
Village Bank.....	Randolph	Palmer & Co.....	N. York.
Walter Joy's Bank.....	Buffalo.....	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.
Washington County Bank ..	Gr'nwich, P. O.	Commercial Bank of Troy...	Troy.
Warren County Bank.....	Johnsburg....	Washburn & Co.....	Albany.
Watertown Bank & Loan Co.	Watertown...	Albany City Bank.....	Albany.
Westchester County Bank...	Peekskill.....	Bank of North America.....	N. York.
Western Bank of Lockport.	Lockport.....	Commercial Bank of Troy...	Troy.
Western B'k. Washington Co.	Cambridge ..	George W. Robinson.....	N. York.
White Plains Bank.....	Naples.....	Phelps & Scovel.....	Albany.
White's Bank of Buffalo....	Buffalo.....	New York State Bank.....	Albany.
Williamsburg City Bank ...	Williamsburg.	Bank of State of New York.	N. York.
Wooster Sherman's Bank...	Watertown...	Bank of Albany.....	Albany.
Wyoming County Bank....	Warsaw	John Thompson	N. York.
Yates County Bank.....	Penn Yan.....	Mechanics' & Farmers' Bank.	Albany.

BANKS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

LIST OF BANKS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK, THEIR LOCATION, CAPITAL, PAR VALUE OF STOCK, DISCOUNT DAYS, AND TIME OF PAYING DIVIDENDS.

Banks.	Location.	Capital.	Par.	Discount days.	Dividends.
American Exchange .	50 Wall....	$1,500,000	$100	Tues. & Frid.	May & Nov.
Bank of America....	46 "	2,001.200	100	" "	Jan. & July.
Bank of Commerce...	32 "	5,000,000	100	" "	" "
Bank of New York..	48 "	1,000,000	500	" "	May & Nov.
Bank of N. America .	27 "	1,000,000	100	Wed. & Sat.	Jan & July.
Bank of Republic ...	1 "	1,000,000	100	Tues. & Frid.	Feb. & Aug.
Bank of State of N. Y.	30 "	2,000,000	100	" "	May & Nov.
Bowery.....	153 Bowery..	356,650	25	Mon. & Thur.	" "
Broadway.....	336 Broad'y..	500,000	25	Wed. & Sat.	" "
Butchers' & Drovers...	124 Bowery.	500,000	25	" "	Feb. & Aug.
Chatham.....	Chatham sq.	300,000	25	Tues. & Thur.	
Chemical.....	270 Broad'y.	300,000	100	Daily.....	Jan. & July.
Citizen's	64 Bowery..	300,000	25	Tues. & Frid.	Feb. & Aug.
City.....	52 Wall....	720,000	45	" "	May & Nov.
Empire City.....					
Fulton.....	268 Pearl...	600,000	30	Wed. & Sat.	May & Nov.
Greenwich.....	402 Hudson.	200.000	25	Tues. & Frid.	" "
Grocers'.....	55 Barclay..	300,000	50		
Hanover.....	105 Pearl ..	500,000	100	Tues. & Frid.	Jan. & July.
Irving	273 Green'ch	300.000	50	" "	" "
Knickerbocker.....	141 8th Av.	200,000	25		
Leath. Manufacturers'	45 William .	600,000	50	Tues. & Frid.	Feb. & Aug.
Manhattan	40 Wall....	2,050,000	50	Mon. & Thur.	" "
Mechanics'.....	33 "	1,440,000	18	Wed. & Sat..	May & Nov.
Mec. Banking Assoc..	38 "	632,000	25	Tues. & Frid.	" "
Mec. & Trademans'...	898 Grand..	200.000	25	Mon. & Thur.	" "
Mercantile.....	182 Broad'y.	600,000	100	Wed. & Sat.	Jan. & July.
Merchants'	42 Wall....	1,490,000	50	Wed. & Frid.	June & Dec.
Merchants' Exchange..	173 Green'ch	1,235,000	50	Wed. & Sat.	Jan. & July.
Metropolitan.....	54 Wall....	2,000.000	100	Tues. & Frid.	" "
National	36 "	750,000	50	" "	April & Oct.
N. Y. Dry Dock.....	139 Av. D...	420,000	80	" "	Jan. & July.
N. Y. Exchange....	187 Green'ch	250,000	100		" "
North River	187 "	655 000	50	Tues. & Frid.	" "
Ocean	222 Fulton..	1,000,000	50	Wed. & Sat.	" "
Pacific.....	461 Broad'y.	422,000	50	Mon. & Thur.	" "
People's.....	173 Canal ..	412,500	25	Tues. & Frid.	" "
Phœnix.....	45 Wall....	1,200,000	20	Wed. & Sat.	" "
Seventh Ward.....	234 Pearl...	500,000	50	Tues. & Frid.	" "
Tradesmen's.....	177 Chatham	400,000	40	" "	" "
Union	34 Wall....	1,000,000	50	" "	May & Nov
Total capital.....		$35,834,350			

SUFFOLK BANK SYSTEM OF CHECKING COUNTERFEIT BILLS.

The Suffolk Bank of Boston, says the *Traveler*, has devised a method of checking to a great extent, the passing of bad money. In their foreign department there are daily received from the different banks in New England, large numbers of counterfeit bills. These, of course, are returned as worthless, but before this is done, a description is taken of each, with the name of the depositor, which by bank laws is always placed on the band of each parcel. On the back of the bill is marked the date and a reference letter, and the bill is then returned. Should it again be put in circulation, the person who receives it has but to call at the Suffolk Bank, and he can ascertain through whose hands it has passed, and oblige the party to make it good, the record of the Bank being sufficient evidence to force redemption. In most cases where these counterfeits are put in circulation after once passing through the Suffolk Bank, the emission is accidental. In some cases, however, the bill is passed knowing it to be worthless, and we know of one instance where a man paid ten times the value of the bill in order to save prosecution.

REVENUE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN THIRTY YEARS.

A British Parliamentary paper, recently published, furnishes the materials for the following table, showing the annual revenue of the United Kingdom during the thirty years from 1822 to 1851 inclusive, together with the surplus or deficiency that has occurred in each year, and the amount of taxes imposed, and taxes repealed. The years 1823, 1825, 1830, and 1845 are those distinguished by the greatest reduction of duties. In 1823 the salt-tax and assessed taxes to a large amount were the articles chiefly dealt with; in 1825, wine and tobacco; in 1830, beer; and in 1845, sugar, cotton, and glass. The years 1840 and 1842 are those in which the heaviest amount of new burdens were imposed, the addition of 5 per cent to all the existing customs and excise duties having been adopted in the former, and the income-tax in the latter. Out of the thirty years embraced in the table, nineteen exhibit a surplus, and eleven a deficiency:—

Year.	Revenue.	Surplus.	Deficiency.	Taxes repealed.	Taxes imposed.
1822.....	£54,185,743	£4,744,518	.....	£2,139,101	.....
1823.....	52,755,564	4,300,747	.....	4,050,250	£18,596
1824.....	54,416,230	3,888,172	.....	1,704,724	49,605
1825.....	52,347,674	3,049,156	.....	3,639,551	48,100
1826.....	50,241,408	.....	645,920	1,973,812	188,725
1827.....	50,241,658	.....	826,675	84,038	21,402
1828.....	54,104,643	3,246,994	.....	51,998	1,966
1829.....	50,786,682	1,711,550	.....	126,406	.....
1830.....	50,056,615	2,913,672	.....	4,093,955	696,004
1831.....	46,424,440	.....	698,858	1,623,536	627,586
1832.....	46,988,755	614,759	.....	747,264	44,526
1833.....	46,271,326	1,513,083	.....	1,532,128	.....
1834.....	46,509,856	1,608,155	.....	2,066,116	199,594
1835.....	46,048,663	1,620,941	.....	165,877	5,575
1836.....	48,702,654	2,130,092	.....	1,021,786	3,991
1837.	46,475,194	.....	655,760	234	630
1838.....	47,338,460	.....	345,227	289	8,423
1839.....	47,844,898	.....	1,512,793	63,418	.....
1840.....	47,567,565	.....	1,593,971	1,258,959	2,274,240
1841.....	48,084,859	.....	2,101,870	27,170	.....
1842.....	46,965,630	.....	3,979,539	1,596,366	5,629,989
1843.....	52,582,817	1,443,304	.....	411,821	.....
1844.	54,003,753	3,356,105	.....	458,810	.....
1845.....	53,060,254	3,817,642	.....	4,535,561	23,720
1846.....	53,790,138	2,846,308	.....	1,151,790	2,000
1847.....	51,546,264	.....	2,956,684	344,886	.....
1848.....	53,388,717	.....	796,419	585,968	84
1849.....	52,951,749	2,098,126	.....	388,798	.....
1850.....	52,810,680	2,578,806	.....	1,310,151	.....
1851.....	52,233,006	2,726,396	.....	2,679,864	600,000

THE FREE BANKING LAW OF INDIANA.

We publish below an abstract of the free banking law of Indiana, wich has passed both branches of the Legislature of that state, and become a law. By this law, bank issues are to be secured by government, and Indiana, New York, Kentucky and Pennsylvania stocks, with a specie basis, in addition, of 12½ per cent.

The first four sections authorize the state auditors to furnish sufficient blank bank notes, with his countersign, and of the usual denominations from one to five hundred dollars, to associations wishing to do business under this act; such banking association may, however, furnish their own plates, dies, &c., all of which are to be kept in the auditor's custody; and the third section has a provision, that any such bank shall not pay out nor receive notes less than five dollars, issued by banks out of the State; nor shall it issue bills less than five dollars to an amount exceeding one-fourth of its whole issue. The fifth section provides, that when such bank shall transfer to the auditor any portion of certain stocks which shall form its basis, said bank shall receive from the auditor an equal amount of the above-named countersigned and registered bank-notes for circulation. Section 6th defines the stock for

such basis to be any United States indebtedness, or Indiana, as pay interest semi-annually or oftener, and, except as to that of Indiana, the same shall produce at the rate of six per cent per annum, and that of Indiana five per cent; nor shall the auditor take any such stock at a rate above its par or market value. By section 7, such bank (after signing and executing such blank notes as to make them obligatory promissory notes, payable on demand at its place of business in the state) is authorized to loan and circulate the same as money, according to the usual rules of banking. Section 8 prescribes the manner of protesting notes of such bank as shall fail to redeem its notes in United States money when demanded during business hours; and authorizes the auditor in such case to redeem all notes of said bank out of stocks held in trust by him. Section 9 authorizes the auditor to give such banks powers of attorney to receive interest or dividends on stock transferred to him in trust, to be applied to their own use—revoking such powers when their notes are failed to be redeemed, or when the principal of such stocks becomes an insufficient security. By section 10, all such bank notes must bear on their face, "Secured by the pledge of public stocks." Section 11 gives further remedy on failure to redeem bank-notes on demand. Section 12 exempts the state from liability to pay any such bank bills, beyond the proper application of securities pledged with the auditor for their redemption. It also limits the bank to a certain place for carrying on its business—where its bills are made payable. Section 14 allows the auditor to draw on the treasury for the expense of printing the blank notes, and to charge and receive from the banks receiving such notes an amount sufficient to reimburse the treasury, the amount to be just and reasonable. Section 15 provides for destroying plates, &c., of broken banks. By section 17, any number of persons may associate to establish a bank under the provisions of this act; but the aggregate of their capital stock shall not be less than $50,000; and section 22 gives them the power to increase their capital and the number of their associates from time to time. Section 18 requires a certificate to be filed by such bank, designating its name, &c. Section 20 embraces the various powers of such banks, of discounting, receiving deposits, buying and selling gold, &c., of loaning money on personal security at a rate not over six per cent per annum, (which they may discount and take in advance of the sum loaned.) The shares are deemed personal property and are transferable, &c. Every shareholder, by section 25, shall be liable in his individual capacity for any contract of such bank, to an amount over and above his stock equal to the amount of his shares of such stock. Section 26 authorizes such bank to hold, purchase and convey real estate for its use in transacting business; or such as shall be mortgaged to it in security for moneys due it; or conveyed to it in satisfaction of debts previously contracted in the course of its dealings; or such as it shall purchase at sales, under judgments, decrees or mortgages held by such bank. Section 27 provides for a semi-annual newspaper publication of a full statement of the affairs of the association, under oath of the president and cashier, each item of which is specified in the section mentioned. Section 28 defines the penalty for a violation of the preceding section. By section 30, a list of the shareholders of such bank shall be filed in the clerk's office, in the county in which the bank is situated, and also in the state auditor's office, semi-annually. By section 31, no bill of less denomination than $500 will be made payable elsewhere than at the bank's usual place of business. Section 33 provides for 12½ per cent in specie to be kept on hand, on the amount of the bills in circulation. Section 34 makes the act in force from and after the 1st of June.

BANKS IN ILLINOIS.

Hon. Thomas H. Campbell, Auditor of the State of Illinois, has furnished a statement of the organization of the following banks in that State:—

	Capital.
Marine Bank of Chicago	$50,000
Clark's Exchange Bank, Springfield	100,000
Merchants' and Mechanics' Bank, Chicago	100,000

The following certificates have been filed, but as yet no securities have been deposited by the said associations:—

The Bank of Peru, Peru	$200,000 00
The Illinois River Bank, of Taylor & Coffing, Peru	250,000 00
The Belvidere Bank, Belvidere	75,000 00
The Prairie State Bank, Washington, Tazwell Co.	500,000 00
The Quincy City Bank, Quincy	1,000,000 00
Commercial Bank, Chicago	52,000 00
Geneva Bank, Geneva	100,000 00
Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Quincy	500,000 00
Stephenson County Bank, Freeport	50,000 00
The City Bank, Chicago	50,000 00
Rock Island Bank, Rock Island	50,000 00
Marine Bank of Chicago, No. 2	500,000 00
Stock Security Bank, Danville	50,000 00
Bank of North America, Chicago	1,000,000 00
TOTAL.	
Amount of Capital Stock	$4,627,000 00
Amount of Securities deposited	392,094 81
Value of Securities deposited	210,192 61
Amount of circulating notes issued	189,875 00

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

THE AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Hon. HIRAM BELL, in a speech recently made in Congress, grouped many interesting facts in relation to agricultural and manufacturing productions of the country. The amount of capital employed in agriculture in the United States he stated at $1,281,329,919. Thus:—

Acres of land improved	$1,120,420,000	Cheese, pounds of	$6,192,075
Val. of farming implem'ts.	151,820,273	Hay, tons of	68,026,920
Value of live stock	522,705,238	Hemp, water-rotted, tons.	2,084,440
Bushels of wheat	83,839,384	Flax-seed, bushels of	454,203
Bushels of corn	147,896,513	Maple sugar, pounds of	1,965,555
Tobacco, pounds of	41,971,949	Cane sugar, hogsheads of 1,000 lbs	15,932,200
Ginned cotton, bales, 400 lbs. each	49,484,280	Value of home manufact'a.	27,525,545
Wool, pounds of	15,726,339	Hemp, dew-rotted	9,949,120
Wine, gallons of	141,225		
Butter, pounds of	31,220,228	Total	$1,281,329,919

In this calculation he estimated the improved land at $10 per acre, the wheat at 80 cents per bushel, the corn at 25 cents, the tobacco at 6 cents a pound, the cotton at 5 cents, the wool at 30 cents, the wine at $1 per gallon, the butter at 10 cents a pound, the cheese at 6 cents, the hay at $5 a ton, the water-rotted hemp at 8 cents a pound, the flaxseed at 80 cents per bushel, the maple sugar at 6 cents per pound, the cane sugar at 5 cents, and the dew-rotted hemp at 8 cents. Some of the items are curious, thus:—

The number of bushels of wheat is given at 104,799,530; do. of corn, 591,586,053. The pounds of tobacco at 199,532,697. Gin cotton, 2,475,214 bales. Pounds of wool, 52,422,797. Pounds of butter, 312,202,286. Pounds of cheese, 103,184,585. The largest crop in the aggregate, as will be seen, is corn. It yields upwards of $147,000,000.

With regard to manufactures we have this information:—Entire capital invested in the various manufactures of the United States on the 1st of June, 1850, not including establishments producing the annual value of less than $500—$530,000,000.

Value of raw material	$550,000,000
Amount paid for labor	240,000,000
	$1,320,000,000
Value of manufactures	$1,020,300,000
Number of hands employed	1,050,000
Manufactured by each person	$971

These figures of course are not strictly accurate, but they are probably as nearly so as possible.

PRODUCTION OF SHEEP AND WOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Superintendent of the Census of the United States furnishes the annexed table, showing the number of sheep and pounds of wool produced in each of the States and Territories of the Union, according to the census of 1850:—

States.	Sheep.	Lbs. of wool.	States.	Sheep.	Lbs. of wool.
Maine	440,943	1,362,986	Louisiana	110,333	109,897
New Hampshire	384,756	1,108,476	Texas	99,098	131,374
Vermont	919,992	3,410,993	Arkansas	91,256	182,595
Massachusetts	188,651	585,136	Tennessee	811,587	1,364,378
Rhode Island	44,296	129,692	Kentucky	1,070,303	2,283,685
Connecticut	174,181	497,454	Ohio	3,937,086	10,111,288
New York	3,454,241	10,070,301	Michigan	746,435	2,043,283
New Jersey	160,488	375,396	Indiana	1,122,493	2,610,287
Pennsylvania	1,822,357	4,481,570	Illinois	894,048	2,150,113
Delaware	27,503	57,768	Missouri	756,309	1,615,860
Maryland	177,902	480,226	Iowa	149,960	373,898
Dis. of Columbia	150	525	Wisconsin	124,892	253,963
Virginia	1,311,004	2,866,765	California	17,574	5,520
North Carolina	595,249	970,733	Minnesota Territ'y.	80	85
South Carolina	281,754	487,223	Oregon Territory	15,382	29,686
Georgia	560,435	990,019	Utah Territory	3,262	9,222
Florida	23,311	23,247	New Mexico	377,271	32,901
Alabama	371,800	657,118			
Mississippi	304,929	559,619	Total	21,571,306	52,417,287

WHALE FISHERY IN THE REGIONS ABOUT BEHRING'S STRAITS.

On the 22d of March, 1852, the United States Senate adopted a resolution calling upon the Secretary of the Navy "to communicate to the Senate his opinion of the expediency of a reconnoissance of the routes of navigation in the northern seas, and the China and Japan seas, and whether any vessels belonging to the service can be used for that purpose; and also, what would be the expense of such a reconnoissance."

The Secretary of the Navy, under date of April 5th, 1852, in reply to the Senate's resolution, has extracted from the files of the Navy Department, a carefully prepared discussion of the subject by Lieutenant MAURY, the able and efficient Superintendent of the National Observatory at Washington. From the reliable statements of Lieutenant MAURY, we make the following extract touching the value and importance of the whale fishery in the Anadir, Ochotsk, and Arctic seas, as the whaling grounds in the regions about Behring's Straits are called.

"In the summer of 1848, Captain Roys, of the whaleship 'Superior,' penetrated the Arctic ocean through Behring's Straits, and encountered in his adventurous pursuit all the dangers of an unknown and Polar sea. He was successful in his enterprise, filling his ship with oil in a few weeks. Influenced by the report which he brought back as to the abundance of whales, owners in the United States fitted out a large fleet for those grounds, and in 1849, Captain Roys was followed by one hundred and fifty-four sail of whale ships, each vessel (said to be) worth on the average, with her outfit, $80,000, and manned by thirty able-bodied seamen each. This fleet took that season 206,850 barrels whale oil, and 2,481,600 pounds of bone.

"In the summer of 1850, there went up a whaling fleet of one hundred and fifty-four American vessels, manned as above and of a like average value. This fleet, in the course of a few weeks, left for their pursuits in those inhospitable regions, took 243,680 barrels whale oil, and 3,654,000 pounds of bone.

"In the current year (1851) there went up a fleet of about one hundred and forty-five American vessels; but their returns have not been received; partial accounts of wreck and disaster only have reached us. They are startling.

"The lives and property at stake there, for the two years for which we have complete returns, may thus be stated:—

1849.	Number of American seamen.....	4,650		
	Value of ships and outfits.....		$4,650,000	
	Value of oil taken.....		2,606,510	
	Value of bone.....		814,112	
				$8,070,622
1850.	Number of American seamen.....	4,320		
	Value of ships and outfits.....		$4,320,000	
	Value of oil taken.....		3,761,201	
	Value of bone taken.....		1,260,630	
				9,341,831
	Total ships in two years.....		299	
	Total seamen.....		8,970	
	Value of ships and cargoes.....			$17,412,453

"The losses during the year 1851 have been unprecedented, so far as heard from. No less than seven sail of this fine fleet of 1851—the Hoxqua, the New Bedford, the Arabella, the America, the Armata, the Mary Mitchell, and the Henry Thompson—have been wrecked there and left behind as monuments of the dangers which meet these hardy mariners in their adventurous calling. There are reports of other losses and wrecks: these are certain; and though several of them were lost, not on shoals, but otherwise, yet these are enough to tell of imperfect hydrography, and to show the national importance of looking to it; for it may be so that, in case of loss in the ice, the knowledge of a sheltered anchorage near, and which a survey would give, would have prevented the exposure to the ice which induced the loss.

"All our Commerce with what is called 'the East' is not so valuable as this was for 1849 and 1850."

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF VIRGINIA.

In compliance with a resolution of the House of Delegates, the Secretary of the Commonwealth recently communicated to that body a statistical table of the Agricultural productions, &c., in Virginia, compiled and arranged from the census returns, from which the following tabular statement is derived:—

Divisions.	Acres of land in farms. Improved.	Unimproved.	Cash value of farms.
Trans-Alleghany.....	1,965,040	6,954,536	$49,527,721
Valley.....	1,580,359	2,187,789	51,079,875
Piedmont.....	4,347,757	4,045,099	72,230,951
Tide-Water.....	2,467,079	2,604,882	43,563,058
Total.....	10,360,135	15,792,206	$216,401,605

Live stock.

	Horses.	Asses & Mules.	Milch Cows.	Working Oxen.	Other Cattle.
Trans-Alleghany.....	92,442	1,968	112,850	14,550	248,967
Valley.....	57,932	869	53,925	1,633	129,074
Piedmont.....	83,483	7,551	90,518	37,678	186,298
Tide-Water.....	38,530	11,095	60,326	35,652	104,798
Total.....	272,393	21,483	317,619	89,513	669,137

	Sheep.	Swine.	Value of live stock.
Trans-Alleghany	639,469	535,815	$9,863,324
Valley	189,212	244,856	6,696,850
Piedmont	333,373	601,349	10,687,546
Tide-Water	148,450	447,823	6,419,930
Total	1,310,504	1,829,843	$33,656,659

PRODUCE DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 1, 1850.

	Wheat.	Rye.	Indian Corn.	Oats.
Trans-Alleghany.....bushels	1,289,245	168,551	9,485,398	3,443,541
Valley	3,771,555	165,765	4,182,234	1,352,616
Piedmont	4,316,753	105,375	11,695,752	3,559,411
Tide-Water	1,835,163	19,239	9,892,935	1,723,581
Total	11,212,626	458,930	35,254,319	10,179,149

	Tobacco.	Wool.	Butter.	Cheese
Trans-Alleghany.....pounds	224,717	1,290,472	4,157,356	290,629
Valley	622,246	520,705	2,292,286	93,459
Piedmont	54,285,345	721,099	3,143,091	110,791
Tide-Water	1,603,919	327,389	1,496,046	41,413
Total	56,303,227	2,860,765	11,089,379	436,292

	Value of home made manufactures.	Value of animals slaughtered.
Trans-Alleghany	$792,809	$1,676,699
Valley	233,465	1,272,368
Piedmont	784,438	2,632,903
Tide-Water	345,600	1,921,016
Total	$2,156,312	$7,502,986

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF GALENA.

The following statement, derived from an authentic source, shows the quantity and value of principal exports from Galena, Ill., for the year 1851, and also the amount and value of lumber received at Galena, during the same period:—

EXPORTS FROM GALENA IN 1851.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Lead.....lbs.	33,082,190	$1,417,851	Lime.....bbls.	1,168	$992
Flour.....bbls.	39,335	127,672	Corn Meal.....	171	342
Corn.....bush.	24,090	8,431	Eggs.....doz	22,880	2,288
Oats.....	59,629	14,907	Hides and skins.....	9,326	14,125
Barley.....	42,731	21,372	Horses.....	800	40,000
Wheat.....	350	210	Neat cattle.....	1,500	30,000
Rye.....	390	195	Sheep.....	500	750
Potatoes.....	14,000	8,400	Hogs.....	250	1,500
Beans.....	510	767	Soap.....bxs.	900	2,022
Flaxseed.....	25	25	Candles.....	1,200	3,800
Pork.....bbls.	3,185	47,775	Beef.....bbls.	32	384
Lard.....lbs.	125,000	12,500	Hay.....tons	75	600
Bacon.....lbs.	312,568	35,256			
Butter.....	87,618	10,852	Total value.....		$1,800,358

The total amount and value of lumber, &c., received at Galena, for the year 1851, was as follows:—

	Quantity.	Value.
Lumber.....feet	5,085,684	$50,856
Laths.....No.	89,100	2,450
Shingles.....	2,470,500	7,411
Long timber.....feet	12,312	515
Wood.....cords	4,245	12,735

IMPORTATION OF BREADSTUFFS INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

A TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE QUANTITY (IN QUARTERS) OF CORN MEAL AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND, THE BRITISH COLONIES, AND ALL OTHER PARTS, IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1815 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	From Ireland.	From Brit. Colonies.	From other parts.	Total imp'd.
1815 .....quarters	821,192	25	333,041	1,154,258
1816.....	873,865	3	319,203	1,193,071
1817.....	695,651	25,877	1,775,353	2,496,881
1818.....	1,204,733	56,618	3,474,051	4,735,402
1819.....	967,680	14,257	1,693,255	2,675,192
1820.....	1,415,722	40,897	1,300,953	2,757,572
1821.....	1,822,816	40,916	216,738	2,080,470
1822.....	1,063,089	23,439	102,365	1,188,893
1823.....	1,528,153	209	53,432	1,581,794
1824.....	1,634,000	891	609,147	2,244,038
1825.....	2,203,962	95,059	962,718	3,261,739
1826.....	1,693,392	30,500	2,218,830	3,941,722
1827.....	2,828,460	61,035	2,550,310	5,439,805
1828.....	2,826,590	21,600	1,272,396	4,120,586
1829.....	2,307,244	7,335	2,680,414	3,994,993
1830.....	2,215,521	79,634	2,355,412	4,650,567
1831.....	2,429,182	225,240	3,316,760	5,971,182
1832.....	2,990,767	129,476	668,422	3,788,665
1833.....	2,787,441	117,745	336,524	3,191,710
1834.....	2,792,658	66,829	492,071	3,351,558
1835.....	2,679,438	25,016	296,189	3,000,643
1836.....	2,958,272	18,561	625,032	3,601,865
1837.....	3,030,293	19,060	1,306,870	4,356,223
1838.....	3,474,302	19,479	1,515,250	5,009,031
1839.....	2,243,151	17,488	4,573,660	6,834,249
1840.....	2,827,782	178,828	3,811,694	6,818,304
1841.....	2,855,525	208,382	3,378,599	6,542,506
1842.....	2,083,600	247,127	3,475,970	5,806,697
1843.....	2,721,400	146,647	1,299,776	4,167,823
1844.....	2,460,800	297,926	2,794,357	5,583,083
1845.....	2,992,800	312,439	2,118,707	5,423,945
1846.....	1,625,000	481,075	4,480,302	6,586,777
1847.....	879,900	546,431	11,769,728	13,196,059
1848.....	1,827,000	229,313	7,125,683	9,182,338
1849.....	1,175,000	210,510	10,616,388	12,001,848
1850.....	1,210,500	126,533	9,134,220	10,473,253
1851.....	1,136,160	163,278	9,773,733	11,073,171

COMPARATIVE COMMERCE OF PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

We give below official tables of the value of foreign and domestic exports from the seven principal commercial cities of the United States, also a comparative statement of the value of imports into the same, all in each quarter, of the years from 1850 to 1852:—

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF FOREIGN GOODS, &C., EXPORTED FROM THE FOLLOWING DISTRICTS.

	1850. 3d quarter.	1851. 3d quarter.	1850. 4th quarter.	1851. 4th quarter.	1851. 1st quarter.	1852. 1st quarter.
Boston....	$527,640	$352,145	$598,991	$500,587	$560,015	$597,691
New York..	5,766,415	2,809,658	4,198,573	2,982,810	2,427,626	.....
Philadel'a .	20,280	16,051	122,447	123,403	24,007	48,332
Baltimore..	40,700	64,492	53,397	19,955	76,068	.....
Charleston..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
N. Orleans.	69,807	51,207	176,571	40,603	104,453	81,229
Mobile....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	$6,424,842	$3,293,553	$5,149,979	$3,667,358	$3,192,169	$727,252

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE FOLLOWING DISTRICTS.

	1850. 3d quarter.	1851. 3d quarter.	1850. 4th quarter.	1851. 4th quarter.	1851. 1st quarter.	1852. 1st quarter.
Boston....	$1,390,850	$3,303,004	$2,398,609	$3,741,791	$1,685,801	$2,761,602
New York.	13,364,937	19,476,164	12,370,315	18,540,781	.....	.....
Philadel'a .	936,200	1,452,500	1,321,316	1,421,324	1,203,039	1,288,057
Baltimore .	1,581,469	1,705,636	1,429,101	1,469,990	.....	.....
Charleston..	2,704,983	921,536	3,539,504	1,998,590	5,919,460	4,622,520
N. Orleans.	8,181,507	5,361,080	10,703,127	10,636,117	19,104,084	16,022,337
Mobile.....	2,561,816	1,561,751	2,724,700	1,541,876	.....	.....
	$30,721,761	$33,781,671	$34,486,672	$39,350,469	$27,911,884	$24,694,516

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF IMPORTS IN THE FOLLOWING DISTRICTS.

	1850. 3d quarter.	1851. 3d quarter.	1850. 4th quarter.	1851. 4th quarter.	1851. 1st quarter.	1852. 1st quarter.
Boston....	$7,880,117	$9,095,182	$5,883,439	$6,010,793	$8,365,748	$8,151,858
New York.	49,266,402	42,297,534	20,106,910	22,086,714	42,557,960	32,110,000
Philadel'a .	4,176,770	4,842,691	2,021,599	2,059,052	4,451,638	4,612,098
Baltimore .	1,682,231	2,439,640	1,386,418	1,384,258	.....	.....
Charleston.	546,586	713,936	563,011	635,586	638,305	871,015
N. Orleans.	1,417,902	1,618,496	4,538,449	4,848,594	4,116,694	3,355,516
Mobile.....	39,501	77,231	100,662	306,382	.....	.....
	$65,009,509	$61,084,710	$34,600,488	$37,331,370	$60,130,345	$48,600,487

STATISTICS OF THE SLAVE TRADE.

A return, as nearly as the same can be furnished, of the number of slaves embarked on the coast of Africa, and landed in Cuba and Brazil, in each year from 1842 to the latest date to which the accounts extend:—

CUBA. Year.	Number.	BRAZIL. Year.	Number
1842.....	3,630	1842.....	17,435
1843.....	8,000	1843.....	19,095
1844.....	10,000	1844.....	22,849
1845.....	1,300	1845.....	19,453
1846.....	419	1846.....	50,324
1847.....	1,450	1847.....	56,172
1848.....	1,500	1848..... ...	60,000
1849..... ..	8,700	1849.....	54,000
1850.....	3,500	1850.....	23,000
1851.....	5,000	1851.....	3,287

IMPORT OF HIDES INTO PORT OF NEW YORK.

From.	No.	From.	No.
Africa.....	75,315	Maracaibo.....	25,370
Angostura.....	257,547	Maranham and Para.....	12,824
Buenos Ayres.....	362,004	Mexico.....	15,189
" kips.....	11,836	Rio Grande.....	94,951
" salted.....	47,759	" salted.....	5,536
" horse.....	17,132	" horse....	3,006
British Provinces.....	21	Rio Janeiro.....	27,317
Calcutta, &c.....	4,738	Smyrna.....	100
California.	2,791	West Indies.....	18,340
Carthagena.....	32,022	Coastwise.....	25,660
Central America.....	23,328	To Dealers.....	97,015
Cork.....	....	New Orleans.....	31,050
Curacoa.....	67,102	Southern States.....	21,876
Chili.....	1,558	Texas.....	23,946
Honduras.....	122		
Laguayra and Porto Cabello..	34,736	Total—1851.....	1,342,598
Liverpool....	2,257	" 1850.....	1,435,119
London.....	150	" 1849.....	1,227,436

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHT ON CAPE WILLOUGHBY, KANGAROO ISLAND.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, July 17, 1852.

The annexed notice to mariners, transmitted to this Department by the United States Consul at London, to whom it was officially communicated by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, is published for general information:—

LIGHT ON CAPE WILLOUGHBY, KANGAROO ISLAND, SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

COLONIAL SECRETARY'S OFFICE, ADELAIDE, December 30, 1851.

Notice is hereby given, by the authority of his Excellency, the Lieutenant-Governor, that on and after the 10th January, 1852, the light in the Sturt Light-house, lately erected on Cape Willoughby, Kangaroo Island, will be exhibited from sunset to sunrise.

This Light-house is situated on the eastern extremity of Kangaroo Island, in latitude 35° 49′ 20″ South, longitude 138° 13′ 30″ East, and is a Revolving Light, appearing at regular intervals of one-and-a-half minutes.

This light is elevated 241 feet above the level of the sea, and can be seen 24 nautical miles, illuminating 259 degrees of a circle, from N. by W. ½ W., round to S. W. by W. ½ W.

By his Excellency's command,

CHARLES STURT, Colonial Secretary.

NEW LIGHT AT THE ENTRANCE OF CHRISTIANIA FIORD.

ROYAL NORWEGIAN MARINE DEPARTMENT, CHRISTIANIA, June 5.

As the present coal-light on Fœrder, at the entrance of the Christiania Fiord, will, in the course of the summer, be replaced by a fast lens-light of the first class, notice is hereby given that in the course of twelve or fourteen days the said light will be placed 130 ells (260 feet) south of the present light-house, about 190 above the level of the sea. The light on this place will be equally visible, as from its present site, to those vessels coming from sea, and seeking the Christiania Fiord; only in cases of vessels within Fœrder, coming west of the Fuglehuk Light, will the light on Fœrder be invisible, in consequence of the high ground north of the light.

Due notice will be given of the period when the new apparatus will be lighted.

LATITUDE OF THE ASTRONOMICAL STATIONS.

COAST SURVEY STATION, (NEAR PETERSBURG,) VIRGINIA, July 13, 1852.

SIR:—I have the honor to report the following results of preliminary computations of observations for latitude on the western coast, made by Assistant George Davidson, during his expedition with the reconnoissance party of Lieutenant-Commanding Allen, from San Francisco southward. The longitude results will be furnished as soon as completed. I would respectfully request authority to publish the present notice:—

LATITUDE OF THE ASTRONOMICAL STATIONS AT THE SEVERAL POINTS, AS DETERMINED BY PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS BY ASSISTANT GEORGE DAVIDSON, UNITED STATES COAST SURVEY.

Name of Station.	General locality.	Latitude.		
Santa Cruz.....	Bay of Monterey, California	36°	57′	26.9″
San Simeon.....	San Simeon Bay, "	35	38	24.4
San Louis Obispo	San Louis Obispo Bay, "	35	10	37.5
Santa Barbara.....	Santa Barbara Chan'l, "	34	24	24.7
Prisoner's Harbor.....	Island of Santa Cruz, "	34	01	10.2
San Pedro	San Pedro Bay, "	33	43	19.6

Very respectfully yours, &c.,

A. D. BACHE, Superintendent.

W. L. HODGE, Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE APPOINTMENT OF WHARFINGERS, AND THEIR DUTIES, IN N. ORLEANS.

The Common Council of the city of New Orleans recently passed the following "Ordinance for the Appointment of Wharfingers, and for Regulating the Duties of the same:"—

AN ORDINANCE FOR THE APPOINTMENT OF WHARFINGERS, AND REGULATING THE DUTIES OF THE SAME.

SECTION 1. That there shall be appointed by the Common Council, in the month of May, (or as soon after as practicable,) and every year thereafter, the following Wharfingers and Assistants, who shall enter upon the discharge of their duties on the first day of June.

One Wharfinger for the steamboats, steamships, flats, etc., of the First District.

One Assistant Wharfinger for all that portion of the First District from the flatboat landing unto the upper line of said district.

One Wharfinger for the whole of the Second District.

Two Assistant Wharfingers for the Second and Third Districts.

One Assistant Wharfinger for the Fourth District.

SEC. 2. The Assistant Wharfingers of the First and Fourth Districts shall make daily reports of the arrivals and departures of all vessels, flats, etc., with their tonnage, to the Wharfinger of the First District. The Assistant Wharfingers of the Second and Third Districts shall also report in same manner to the Wharfinger of the Second District.

SEC. 3. It shall be the special duty of the Wharfingers to make a weekly report to the Controller of all and every description of vessels, their tonnage, etc., which may each day enter and moor within the limits of the port under their superintendence; which weekly report shall be filed in the office of said Controller for further reference and examination, in regular rotation and dates.

SEC. 4. The Wharfingers and Assistants shall perform such duties as are now prescribed by existing ordinances, or that may be hereafter prescribed by the Common Council. The office of the Wharfingers shall be open from sunrise to sunset, (Sundays excepted.) They shall receive for compensation fifteen hundred dollars per annum, payable monthly, and the Assistants nine hundred dollars per annum, payable monthly.

SEC. 5. For the faithful performance of their several duties, the Wharfingers shall furnish bonds and security in the sum of five thousand dollars each; and the Assistants in the sum of two thousand dollars each.

SEC. 6. All ordinances or parts of ordinances conflicting with the foregoing ordinances be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

NEW ORLEANS LEVEE AND WHARFAGE DUES.

The Common Council of the city of New Orleans have passed the subjoined ordinance, which was approved by the President of the Board and Assistant Board of Aldermen, and by the Mayor of the city, on the 28th of May, 1852, and is now in force:—

AN ORDINANCE TO REGULATE THE LEVEE AND WHARFAGE DUES ON SHIPS AND VESSELS ARRIVING FROM SEA, AND ON STEAMBOATS, FLATS, BARGES, ETC.

ART. 1. That from and after the passage of this ordinance the levee or wharfage rates on ships or other sail vessels, steamships, steamboats, flats, barges, and other craft, shall be fixed as follows:—

On all ships or sail vessels of 1,000 tons and under, 25 cents per ton.

Excess of tonnage over 1,000 tons, 20 cents per ton.

On all steamships, 17½ cents per ton.

On all steamboats of 1,000 tons and under, 15 cents per ton.

Excess of tonnage over 1,000 tons, 10 cents per ton; *provided*, that boats arriving and departing more than once each week shall pay only two-thirds of these rates.

On each flatboat not measuring over 80 feet, $10.

On each flatboat measuring 80 to 100 feet, $12.

On each flatboat measuring over 100 feet, $15.

On each barge more than 70 feet long, $12.

On each barge less than 70 feet, and not exceeding 15 tons burden, $8.

On each steamboat hull used as a barge, $25.

On each scow and coastwise pirogue, $2.

For every flatboat, barge, or other vessel, not including steamboats, employed in transportation of brick, lumber, or other building materials, or in bringing produce from this and neighboring parishes to this city, and measuring not over 25 tons, the levee and wharfage dues shall be $30 per annum.

From 25 to 50 tons, $60 per annum.

Over 50 and not exceeding 75 tons, $80 per annum.

Over 75 and not exceeding 100 tons, $125 per annum.

Over 100 tons, $200 per annum.

ART. 2. Every proprietor of any small craft of the description above mentioned, who shall desire to enjoy the privilege accorded by the present ordinance, must apply to the Treasurer of the city of New Orleans for the purpose of obtaining a license, approved by the Mayor, and countersigned by the Controller, which license shall specify the number or name of such craft, which shall be painted in a conspicuous place on the side of said craft.

ART. 3. Hereafter it shall not be lawful for any pirogue, flatboat, barge, boat or keelboat, to remain in port longer than eight days, under the same provisions and penalties contained in Art. 3 of an Ordinance of the General Council, approved May 26, 1843.

ART. 4. That the payment of the levee dues on ships or sail vessels, steamships, and steamboats, shall be exacted and collected by the Collectors of Levee Dues, and an extra duty of one-third these rates shall be paid by all sail vessels or steamships which may remain in port over two months, the same to be recovered at the commencement of the third month; and if over four months, an additional duty of one-third these rates.

Steamboats shall be entitled to remain thirty days in port after payment of the dues. All over thirty days to pay an additional duty of $2 per day.

ART 5. That all vessels now in port, and that have paid a daily or weekly wharfage, shall be allowed (and the Collectors are hereby authorized) to deduct the amount so paid from the rates now to be collected.

All ordinances or parts of ordinances conflicting with the foregoing be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

DUTIES ON CASKS AND BARRELS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 7, 1852.

SIR:—In reply to your inquiry on the subject of the claims for a return of the duty which has been paid upon the cost of casks containing molasses imported from Cuba, on the plea that they were originally made in the United States and shipped to that Island, and therefore exempt from duty as being articles of American manufacture, I have the honor to state that nearly if not all of the casks in which molasses is imported from Cuba were originally shipped from the United States as molasses shooks; that is to say, the cask is made and put together and the heads fitted in; the temporary shop-hoops are then removed and the casks taken apart, the staves being laid one on the other in a solid form, and strapped together in that mode by two small hoops; the heads of the hogsheads, each head complete, are in like manner laid one on the other, generally six or eight together, and also strapped together with hoops; and in this form shipped sometimes in entire cargoes to Cuba, where they are purchased by the planters, who also buy the hoops likewise shipped from the United States, either as poles in their original state, as cut in the woods, or split into hoops, and ready shaved for use, and tied up in long bundles. The molasses hogsheads are then put together from the materials thus sent from the United States, and are used for the return cargoes of molasses. These molasses shooks, complete in the above form, are usually sold in Cuba, according as the supply may be more or less abundant, at from 90 to 100 cents each, besides which is the labor of putting them together, hooping them, and other work needful to render them suitable for use. But, whilst

the original cost of these shooks is as above only from 90 to 100 cents, the cask for the molasses is universally charged in the invoices at the rate of 5¼ cents per gallon, which, on the average size of 110 gallons each, is equal to $6 05 for each hogshead. This very heavy charge for the cask had its origin many years since, and has been steadily adhered to ever since, and, as it will be seen, is an enormous profit to the parties upon the actual cost. It is in fact a part of the real cost of the molasses itself; for if the parties were not, by custom and agreement, authorized to charge this very heavy price for the cask, but were obliged to furnish it at the real cost, then the price of the molasses would necessarily have to be increased in the proportion, and the duty therefore on the cask, of which complaint is made, though nominally on it, is virtually on the molasses.

In proof of this it is only necessary to state that parties sometimes furnish their own casks, in which cases the bill for the molasses is nevertheless rendered by the vendors in the usual form, charging the molasses at the stipulated price per gallon, and for the casks at the rate of 5¼c. per gallon, or about $6 each, and then from the foot of the bill a deduction is made for the casks furnished by the vessel at the current market value of them, which is frequently only 87½ cents, and rarely if ever exceeds $1 25, leaving the difference between these latter prices and the $6 per cask charged as a clear augmentation on the price of the molasses itself, and which would appear in the charge per gallon for the molasses, if it was not allowed to be made in the extra charge for the cask. There seems to be no good or just reason why the present law exempting from duty American productions returned from a foreign port should be charged so as to apply to molasses casks thus shipped in the form of shooks, sold as merchandise, and probably changing owners various times in Cuba, and returned as complete packages containing foreign merchandise. It is shipped as a rough material, and returned in a new shape, after having had foreign labor bestowed upon it. The law in question provides that American goods from a foreign port, in order to be entitled to free entry, shall not only be in the same state as when shipped, but also contemplates that it shall be free from any increased value from foreign labor which may have been bestowed upon it, and shall not in the mean time have been applied to any other use. There is no calculating the extent to which a principle of the kind contemplated in this clause for an exemption from duty would lead. American woolen or cotton fabrics could be returned in the shape of ready-made clothing; American leather in the shape of boots and shoes; American wood in the shape of furniture; and so of other articles. Still less reason exists why, under the circumstances, as detailed above, such exemption should be made for a remission of duties upon the value of the cask, charged as it is at so high a rate, with a view of compensating for the low nominal price at which molasses is sold, for it would be a virtual remission of the duties on the molasses itself.

The average price at which molasses is sold in Cuba ranges from 1½ to 2 reals per keg of 5½ gallons, and at some seasons has gone up to 3 and 3½ reals of 12½ cents each; at the former rates, which are those at which the great bulk of the crop is sold, it would only be 3½ to 4½ cents per gallon—a rate which evidently shows the necessity of having some perquisite in the shape of an outside charge, to give an increased compensation for the article. But to put the case in a still stronger point of view, it is only necessary to state that, so depressed was the article in the year 1880, that no charge whatever was made for the molasses, and entire cargoes were furnished at the only charge of 5½ cents per gallon for the cask; and, had an *ad valorem* duty then existed, not only the cask, but the molasses also, would, on the principle now claimed by the parties, have been admitted free of duty.

The claim as it regards molasses casks would equally apply to the boxes for sugar, and could not be denied to the latter if granted to the former.

Box shooks, that is to say suitable boards sawed to the proper size for sides, top, bottom, and ends of boxes, are strapped together, as in the case of the molasses shooks, and shipped by hundreds of thousands to Cuba, as it is believed all the boxes (1,700,000) for the entire crop of the island are shipped from the States; and these box shooks are sold at from 65 to 75 cents each, but are charged to the purchasers of sugar at the fixed and invariable price of $3 25 each, and, as in the case of the molasses casks, forms a part of the real cost of the article they contain, as they in like manner with the hogsheads are put together in the Island and prepared for the reception of the sugar. The planter, in making his calculations as to the price of his sugar, of course takes into view his large profit on the box; and if he asks 3 cents for the sugar and $3 25 for the box, he would demand 3½ cents for the sugar, if the purchaser was

to furnish his own box—which, however, is never done—though, as already stated, it is occasionally the fact as regards casks for molasses.

The number of hogsheads of molasses imported into the United States during the fiscal year ending ending the 30th of June, 1851, was about 351,000, which, at the average invoice price of $6, would be $2,106,000; the duty on which, at 30 per cent, was $631,800. The number of boxes of sugar was about 956,000, which, at the invoice cost of $3 25 would be $2,107,000; the duty on which at 30 per cent, was $632,100. If the principle is adopted that this duty was erroneously exacted, it would, for the six years that the present ad valorem tariff has been in operation, make an aggregate of $3,790,800 on the molasses casks, and $3,792,600 on the sugar boxes, and, together, $7,583,400 to be returned from the Treasury.

Congress, of course, when enacting the present tariff of ad valorem duties, took into view these items, as forming a portion of the invoice cost of molasses and sugar, and levied the rate accordingly, which on sugar, including the heavy charge for the box, is only about one cent per pound instead of 2½ cents, which previously existed; and on molasses only about 3 cents instead of 5 cents per gallon, which existed under the tariff of 1842.

The principle now put forward would equally apply to other objects of importation, and, altogether, would form demands upon the Treasury which it would be extremely difficult to meet; and it may be further added that a very large portion of the millions which would be returned on the molasses and sugar importations would accrue to the benefit of non-resident foreign merchants, who are the owners and shippers of those articles, and who, as well as the resident American importers, made their calculations at the time based upon the duties which were levied agreeably to existing laws, paid for the merchandise at corresponding rates, and who of course realized the regular and usual profits on their importations. To now return these duties would be an actual bounty to the parties, which they would not have enjoyed had they been exempted from duty at the time, as the purchasing price in Cuba and the selling price in the United States would so have regulated themselves that the average profits would not have been greater than what has already been realized upon those importations.

The duties on these packages have not been paid from the pockets or at the cost of the importers, but by the citizens of the United States who consumed the articles in question; and in the opinion of the Department, the former, neither in law nor equity, have any claim for a return of said duties.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

THOS. CORWIN, *Sec. Treas.*

HON. R. M. T. HUNTER, *Chairman of Senate Committee on Finance.*

OF THE SURVEY OF LUMBER IN MAINE.

AN ACT REGULATING THE SURVEY OF LUMBER ON THE KENNEBEC RIVER.

SEC. 1. The Governor hereby is authorized, with the advice of the council, to appoint some suitable person to be surveyor general of lumber, for the counties of Kennebec and Lincoln, and the town of Brunswick, in the county of Cumberland, and the town of Fairfield, in the county of Somerset, to hold his office for the term of four years, unless sooner removed by the governor and council, who shall give bond with sufficient sureties to the treasurer of the county of Kennebec, in the sum of two thousand dollars, for the faithful discharge of his duty, to be approved by the governor and council, and shall be sworn to the upright and faithful performance of his trust. And said surveyor general shall be authorized and required to appoint such number of deputies, not less than ten, who shall be sworn to the faithful performance of their duties, and give bond therefor to the surveyor general, and may be removed by him at pleasure. Provided, that nothing in this act shall be construed to prevent any person or persons from completing any contract, heretofore made, with express reference to a survey by a particular individual.

SEC. 2. In the survey and admeasurement of lumber, of the sorts in this act hereafter mentioned, the following rules and regulations are hereby established. Pine boards and planks shall be divided into four sorts. The first sort shall be denominated number one, and shall include boards not less than one inch thick, straight-grained and free from rot, sap, knots and shakes. The second sort shall be denominated number two, and shall include boards not less than one inch thick, free from rot and large knots, and suitable for planing; provided, that such boards as are clear but may be

deficient in thickness as aforesaid, shall be received as number two, by making such allowance for the deficiency in thickness as may be required to make them equal to one inch thick. The third sort shall be denominated number three, and shall include boards not less than seven-eighths of an inch thick, nearly free from rot, and nearly square edged, and suitable for covering buildings. The fourth sort shall be denominated number four, and shall include all boards and plank of every description, not being within the other three denominations. Spruce, hemlock, and juniper boards, plank and joists shall be of two sorts. The first shall be denominated number one, and shall include all boards, plank and joists, that are sound and square edged. The second sort shall be denominated number two, and shall include all other descriptions. Pine joists shall be divided into two sorts. The first sort shall be denominated number one, and shall include all joists that are sound and square edged. The second sort shall be denominated number two, and shall include all other descriptions.

SEC. 3. Timber shall be surveyed forty cubic feet to the ton, and shall be divided into two sorts. The first sort shall be sound, straight and square-edged, and in lengths or joints of not less than sixteen feet, and due allowance shall be made for sap. The second sort, or number two, shall include all other timber. No provisions in this act shall change the present method of surveying ship timber, knees, masts, spars or ship plank.

SEC. 4. In surveying the lumber aforesaid, the contents thereof shall be truly marked thereon in plain characters and all other marks erased. Allowance and deduction shall be made for splits, not exceeding in any case one-half of the length of said splits. And all said lumber shall be received and sold according to the aforesaid marks; and it shall not be lawful for any person or persons to sell or purchase any of said sorts of lumber within the aforesaid territory on said river, unless the same shall be surveyed and marked as aforesaid by the surveyor general or by one of his deputies, except such as may be purchased by any person or persons, for his or their own use, or home consumption. In all surveys by the surveyor general or his deputies, there shall be placed upon each piece of lumber, except such as belongs to number four, the numerical mark showing the particular sort or quality, to which it belongs.

SEC. 5. The fees of the surveyor general or his deputies for marking and surveying said lumber, and giving certificates therefor, shall be paid by the purchaser, and at the following rates, viz., for boards, plank and joists, sixteen cents per thousand feet board measure, and for timber, six cents per ton. And whenever said survey and marking shall have been done by a deputy of said surveyor general, he shall pay to said surveyor general for his perquisite, one-eighth part of the fees therefor.

SEC. 6. If any person shall sell or purchase within the aforesaid territory, any of the aforesaid descriptions of lumber not surveyed and marked as this act requires, he shall forfeit one dollar for every ton of timber or every thousand feet of said other lumber, sold or purchased as aforesaid, and if any person not being the surveyor general or one of his deputies, shall take an account of, or survey any of the aforesaid descriptions of lumber, sold or purchased as aforesaid, he shall forfeit not less than two nor more than ten dollars for every ton of timber, or every thousand feet of said other lumber which he shall survey or take an account of; but said forfeiture shall not extend to such lumber as the parties may agree to have shipped without survey; provided the same be actually shipped in pursuance of said agreement.

SEC. 7. Whenever any seller or purchaser of any of the lumber aforesaid shall be dissatisfied with the survey made by any of said deputies, he may appeal to the surveyor general, who shall decide the point of difference, and the survey and certificate shall be made according to said decision.

SEC. 8. If the surveyor general or any deputy, shall unreasonably refuse to do and perform any duty required of him by this act, or shall be guilty of any fraud or deceit in the performance of any such duty, he shall forfeit a sum not less than ten or more than fifty dollars for every such offence.

SEC. 9. All fines and penalties, forfeited by any person or persons under the provisions of this act, may be recovered by action of debt; or the same may be recovered by indictment in the district court or supreme judicial court, one-half to the use of the county in which such offense may have been committed, and the other half to the person who shall sue or prosecute for the same.

SEC. 10. Any person aggrieved shall have a right to commence and prosecute to final judgment and execution an action on the bond given by the surveyor general in the name of the treasurer of the county of Kennebec, for the benefit of the persons

so aggrieved; and said aggrieved person shall indorse the writ, and the judgment, when for the defendant, shall be rendered against said person for whose benefit the suit was brought, and execution shall issue thereon.

SEC. 11. The said surveyor general shall be required to keep a record of all lumber surveyed by him, and by his deputies; and his deputies shall be required to make return of all lumber surveyed by them respectively to the surveyor general, as often as once in each month, and oftener, if required by said surveyor general.

SEC. 12. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed. [Approved April 23, 1852.]

OF NAVIGATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES, CUBA, ETC. ETC.

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO THE COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 30, 1852.

The Department has received official information that the Spanish government, by a royal decree of 3d January, 1852, has authorized the admission into the ports of Spain and islands adjacent, on a footing of equality with Spanish vessels as to navigation and port duties, the vessels of all nations which may concede a like benefit in their respective territories to the vessels of the Spanish mercantile marine, and that the American Minister at Madrid had made an arrangement with the Spanish government by which the privileges conceded by said decree to foreign vessels should take effect, as regards the American flag, on and after the first day of May last.

The Collectors of the Customs are therefore requested and instructed to admit Spanish vessels arriving from Spanish or any other foreign ports, those of Cuba and Porto Rico excepted, to entry on the same footing as American vessels, as regards tonnage duty, light money, and all other dues to the United States, so far as respects the vessels; but the provisions of the act of 13th July, 1832, as regards Spanish vessels arriving from the ports of Cuba or Porto Rico, are to remain in full force. Any tonnage duty or light money which may have been exacted contrary to the tenor of the preceding instructions from Spanish vessels that may have arrived in the United States since the first ultimo, will be returned by the Department under the usual certificates and formalities.

Under the circular instructions from this Department, of 13th June, 1849, Spanish vessels from the ports of Cuba have been admitted to entry free of tonnage duty when arriving with a cargo of molasses or in ballast, in consequence of American vessels arriving in the ports of that island being exempted from the customary foreign tonnage duty, provided they arrived in ballast, or loaded outward with a full cargo of molasses. The Department, however, has recently ascertained that this exemption of tonnage duty on American vessels arriving in ballast is not accorded to such vessels unless they likewise depart in ballast, and that the full tonnage duty of one dollar and fifty cents per ton is exacted if they take away any portion of a cargo of the produce of the island, molasses only excepted. Under these circumstances the Department does not consider itself authorized, under the provisions of the act of 13th July, 1832, to admit to entry Spanish vessels from Cuba on any other terms than American vessels are admitted into the ports of that island; and, consequently, all Spanish vessels arriving from said island in ballast, must pay the same tonnage duty of one dollar and fifty cents per ton, as is exacted on American vessels entering the ports of Cuba, unless they likewise leave the United States in ballast; but Spanish vessels arriving from the ports of Cuba with a *full* cargo of molasses will continue to be exempted from the payment of any tonnage duty.

Spanish vessels arriving from a port in Porto Rico, will, in all cases, whether in ballast or cargo of any description, pay a tonnage duty of eighty-seven-and-a-half cents per ton, being the amount which, agreeably to the latest authentic advice in possession of the Department, is exacted upon American vessels in that island, unless any vessel so arriving from said island shall produce a certificate from the principal officer of the customs at the port of her departure, duly certified by the American consul, that a less tonnage duty is charged at said port upon American vessels, or that the latter under any particular circumstances are entirely exempted from the payment of tonnage duty; in which case said vessel shall be admitted to entry on like terms as may be thus accorded to American vessels in the ports of Porto Rico.

In all cases where Spanish vessels may arrive from the ports of either Cuba or Porto Rico, and shall produce certificates as above, duly verified by the American

consul of any modification in the rate of tonnage duty on American vessels in the ports of said islands, the collectors of the customs will report the same to the Department, and if they may not have been already authorized, they will be instructed to make a similar modification, agreeably to the act of the 18th July, 1832, in the tonnage duty upon Spanish vessels thus arriving from said islands.

Complaints have been made to the Department that under the instructions of 5th ultimo, to the collectors of some of the principal ports, annulling so much of the circular of 13th June, 1849, as exempted from tonnage duty Spanish vessels arriving in ballast from Cuba; various Spanish vessels have paid this duty when they had no knowledge of the change at the time of their departure for the United States. The collectors are instructed to report all such cases for the consideration of the Department, with the view of affording such just relief as it may be in its power to grant. The report in any such case will state the time of clearance and departure from Cuba, the time of arrival in the United States, and the amount of tonnage duty paid in each case.

The collectors will report promptly to the Department any authentic information they may receive of modifications in the tonnage or other dues upon American vessels in the ports of either of the above islands, in order that the Department may promptly meet any such modifications in favor of American vessels by extending the same to Spanish vessels arriving in the United States from the ports of either of those colonies.

WM. L. HODGE, *Acting Sec. Treas.*

LAW OF OHIO TO PREVENT FRAUD IN TRADE.

The following Act of the General Assembly and Senate of the State of Ohio, to prevent fraudulent practices in trade, was passed at the last Session of the Legislature, and approved March 19, 1852.

AN ACT TO PREVENT FRAUDULENT PRACTICES.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That if any person shall execute and deliver, or shall cause or procure to be executed and delivered to any person, any false or fictitious bill of lading, receipt, schedule, invoice, or other written instrument, to the purport or effect that any goods, wares or merchandise, had been or were held, delivered, received, placed or deposited, on board of any steamboat or watercraft, navigating the waters in or bordering upon the State of Ohio, when such goods, wares and merchandise were not held, or had not in fact and in good faith been delivered, received or deposited on board of such steamboat or other watercraft, when such bill of lading, receipt, invoice, schedule or written instrument was made and delivered according to the purport and effect of such bill of lading, receipt, invoice, schedule or written instrument, with intent to injure, deceive, or defraud any person whomsoever, or if any person shall indorse, assign, transfer, or put off, or shall attempt to indorse, assign, transfer or put off, any such false or fictitious bill of lading, receipt, invoice, schedule, or other written instrument, knowing the same to be false, fraudulent or fictitious, the person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary, and kept at hard labor, for a term not exceeding four years, nor less than one year.

SEC. 2. If any person shall execute and deliver, or shall cause or procure to be executed and delivered to any other person, any false and fictitious warehouse receipt, acknowledgment, or other instrument of writing, to the purport and effect that such person, or any person or persons, copartnership, firm, body politic or corporate, which he or she represents, or pretends to represent, held or had received in store, or held or had received in any warehouse, or in any other place, or held or had received into possession, custody, or control, of such person or persons, copartnership, firm, or body politic, any goods, wares or merchandise, when such goods, wares or merchandise were not held or had not been received in good faith, according to the purport and effect of such warehouse receipt, receipt acknowledgment, or instrument of writing, with intent to defraud, deceive, or injure any person whomsoever, or if any person shall indorse, assign, transfer or deliver, or shall attempt to indorse, transfer and deliver to any other person any such false and fictitious warehouse receipt, receipt acknowledgment, or instrument of writing, knowing the same to be false, fraudu-

lent, or fictitious, such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be punished by imprisonment in the penitentiary, and kept at hard labor, for a term not more than three years, nor less nor one year.

SEC. 3. That if any person or persons, or the agent of any person or persons, having in his or their possession, custody or control, any goods, wares or merchandise, by virtue of any genuine instrument of writing, of the purport or effect of any such instrument of writing as is mentioned in the first or second sections of this act, shall, without authority, and with intent to injure or defraud the rightful owner thereof, sell, assign, transfer or encumber such goods, wares or merchandise, or any part thereof, to the value of fifty dollars or upwards, or shall in any way convert the same to his own use, or if the consignor or consignors or the agent of such consignor or consignors of any goods, wares or merchandise, not being the absolute owner thereof, and not having authority to stop, countermand or change the consignment thereof, or not having authority to sell or encumber the same during the transit, shall, after the shipment thereof on board any watercraft, or after the deposit thereof in or upon any vehicle for land carriage, in any way stop, countermand or change the consignment thereof, or shall sell, dispose of or encumber such goods, wares or merchandise, during their transit or after their delivery, or shall in any way convert the same, or any part thereof, to his or her own use, to the value of fifty dollars or upwards, so that the right owner thereof shall sustain a loss thereby to the value of fifty dollars or upwards, the person so offending, with intent as aforesaid, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary thereof, and kept at hard labor, for a term not less than one year, nor more than four years.

SEC. 4. That the ninth and tenth sections of the act entitled an act to prevent fraudulent practices, passed the 12th day of March, 1844, and the first section of an act entitled an act to amend the act entitled an act to prevent fraudulent practices, passed January 31st, 1846, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

OF INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW YORK.

The following act to amend the act entitled "an act to provide for the incorporation of insurance companies," passed April 10th, 1849, was passed April 1, 1852, and is now in force:—

SEC. 1. It shall and may be lawful, for any marine insurance company to be organized pursuant to the provisions of the said act hereby amended, to establish and maintain one or more agencies beyond the United States, for the transaction of its lawful business, upon such terms and conditions as the said company may prescribe.

SEC. 2. In case any such agency or agencies shall be established in Asia or Europe, the statement required by the thirteenth section of the said act hereby amended, may be deferred for the space of five months from and after the first day of January in each year, and when made, it shall refer to the first day of January then next preceding.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect immediately.

LAW OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES IN KENTUCKY.

From a revised statute of the law of Kentucky we extract the following, with regard to weights and measures, which takes effect on the 1st of July next:—

SEC. 6. The hundred-weight shall consist of 100 pounds avoirdupois, and 2,000 such pounds shall constitute a ton; and all contracts hereafter shall be construed accordingly, unless the contrary be expressly stipulated.

SEC. 7. Sixty pounds of wheat, fifty-six pounds of rye, fifty-six pounds of Indian corn, forty-eight pounds of barley, thirty-three-and-a-third pounds of oats, sixty pounds of potatoes, sixty pounds of beans, twenty pounds of bran, sixty pounds of clover-seed, forty-five pounds of timothy-seed, fifty-six pounds of flax-seed, forty-four pounds of hemp-seed, fifty-two pounds of buckwheat, fourteen pounds of blue-grass-seed, fifty pounds of cornmeal, fifty-seven pounds of onions, and fifty-six pounds of salt shall constitute a bushel of such articles respectively.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD.

This road extends from Monroe to Laporte, a distance of 188 miles. The stock is principally owned, we believe, by eastern capitalists. The President of the company, GEORGE BLISS, Esq., resides in Springfield, Massachusetts. The managers of this company have issued a brief statement of the condition of that company and its business of last year. When it connects directly with Chicago, which will be during the spring, the traffic must be very largely increased. The earnings for the year 1851 were as follows:—

	Passengers.	Freight.	Mails and miscellane's.
January	$1,820 31	$14,683 75	.....
February	1,869 73	13,676 32	$595 25
March	2,810 99	9,546 43	20 88
April	4,016 10	17,632 40	45 50
May	5,404 44	19,649 08	7 95
June	5,350 96	17,624 77	170 57
July	5,058 04	16,980 13	.....
August	5,027 81	19,776 66	327 38
September	8,612 39	27,762 84	.....
October	9,596 83	40,895 59	.....
November	6,134 89	26,419 50	502 50
December	4,759 60	18,757 68	.....
Mails for the year	.....	.....	8,167 35
	$60,462 09	$243,105 15	$9,837 38
Total			$313,404 62

Recapitulation for 1851, as compared with 1850:—

	1850.	1851.
Passengers	$25,779 22	$60,462 09
Freight	109,253 81	243,105 15
Mails and miscellaneous	4,504 94	9,837 38
	$139,537 97	$313,404 62
		139,537 97
Increase about 125 per cent		$173,866 65

The earnings for 1851 were upon a longer line than was open for use in 1850—25 miles of new road having been opened in March, and about 20 more in September, 1851.

The expenses for repairs and operating and managing the road, including taxes and rents of the Erie and Kalamazoo Road for the year 1851, were $137,404 19.

Earnings as above	$313,404 62
Expenses	137,404 19
Net earnings	$176,000 43

Two dividends of 7 per cent each, upon the amount of capital stock paid in, have been declared as follows:—

1st July, 1851, upon $712,600, being amount paid in upon stock at that date	$49,882 00
2d January, 1852, upon $902,020	63,141 40
Total	$113,023 40

The total amount expended in construction and for equipment to 1st January, 1852, was		$2,378,082 05
The indebtedness of the company at that date was as follows:—		
7 per cent mortgage bonds due in 1860—total amount issued	$1,000,000	
Less amount unsold	94,000	
		$906,000 00
Balance of debt due to the State of Michigan, payable $50,000 per annum, with interest at 6 per cent		200,000 00
8 per cent bonds due in 1853		31,614 00
All other indebtedness, after applying cash and available means on hand		187,068 79
Capital stock subscribed	$992,700	
Less amount unpaid	90,500	
		902,200 00
Due to income account for amount expended in construction		151,199 26
Total		$2,378,082 05
Mortgage bonds on hand, unsold 1st January		$94,000 00
Amount payable on stock subscriptions at same date		90,500 00
Total		$184,500 00

The main line of the road is all built with a heavy rail, except about twenty miles at the eastern end, the iron for which is now at Dunkirk, and will be laid down early in the ensuing spring.

The equipment of the road on the 1st January, 1852, consisted of twenty-five locomotives, (including four purchased and delivered at Buffalo, which cannot reach Michigan until the opening of lake navigation,) sixteen passenger cars, four hundred and twenty-six freight cars, equal to cars of four wheels, and ninety-two repairing and lumber cars.

The preceding statement is exclusive of the Northern Indiana Railroad, the expenditures upon which, up to 1st January, 1852, for all purposes of construction and equipment, had been $1,553,133 38. This road was opened for use to Laporte (167 miles from Lake Erie) in December last; and from Michigan City to Chicago on the 20th inst. A continuous line is thus formed by the Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Roads from Lake Erie to Chicago, with the exception of thirteen miles between Laporte and Michigan City, which is now supplied by a plank-road. It is expected that the entire line will be completed in April next, when the trains can pass without interruption from Lake Erie to Chicago.

Further expenditures will be required for completing the stations and depot accommodations, and for covering advances by the company for their steamboat connections upon the Lakes. The work of construction upon the road will be substantially completed previous to the issuing of the annual report in June next, by which time the cost of the work can be definitely ascertained.

STATISTICS OF OCEAN STEAMSHIPS.

COLLINS LINE—CUNARD LINE—HAVRE LINE—BREMEN LINE—CALIFORNIA LINES: VANDERBILT'S—PACIFIC STEAMSHIP COMPANIES—MILLS' LINE, &c.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for September, 1851, (vol. xxv., pages 377–379,) we published a comparative statement of the amount of duties paid on merchandise by the Cunard steamers arriving at New York and Boston, from their commencement to the year 1851; and in the number for November, 1851, same volume, *Merchants' Magazine*, we gave a tabular detail shewing the value of, and the amount of duties paid on imports into the port of New York by the vessels belonging to the "Steam Navigation Company" and the "United States Mail Steamship Company," since the establishment of these lines. In the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, (vol. xxvi., pp. 379–381,) we gave the passages of the Cunard and Collins line from June, 1851, also the amount of specie taken to Liverpool on each voyage, and the passengers carried from port to port to the close of the year 1851.

The subjoined tables, furnished by the *Courier and Enquirer*, give some additional particulars of the Collins and Cunard lines, and also of the Havre, Bremen, and Pacific steamers:—

By the first table it will be seen that the shortest passage from New York to Liverpool in 1851, by the Collins line, was performed by the Pacific, in May; time 9 days 20 hours: the longest (of the same line) was made by the Atlantic in October; time 12 days 15 hours. The passages average 10 days 21 hours and 10 minutes, the year through. The largest amount of specie shipped on any occasion was $1,096,644, by the Baltic, in November last. The total amount of specie exported during the year by this line was $10,520,341. The Pacific took out 238 passengers in May, being the largest number hence during the year. Total number of passengers carried to Liverpool from New York 2,129.

The second statement shows the average passages of the return voyages from Liverpool during the year to have been 11 days 17 hours and 30 minutes. The Pacific brought out the largest number of passengers (192) in September. The total number brought by this fleet from Liverpool to New York in 1851, amounts to 2,027. The duties paid at the Custom-House for goods imported during the year amount to $2,122.537 56.

By the third statement the Cunard steamers are shown to have performed twenty-three passages from New York to Liverpool, at an average speed of 11 days 4 hours and 13 minutes per trip; they carried over 2,012 passengers—the largest passenger list numbering 175, per the Africa, in April. The total amount of specie exported by these vessels was $16,726,675; the heaviest sum on freight per any voyage was $1,425,992, taken out by the Africa in December last.

The fourth table gives the passages of the Cunard steamers from Liverpool to this port, which averaged 12 days 15 hours and 7 minutes per trip. The Asia took out the largest passenger list in August, numbering 163. Total passengers from Liverpool to New York, per Cunard steamers, in 1851, 2,106. The duties paid count up to $2,829,001 31.

The fifth and subsequent tables of similar character relate to other lines of steam navigation connected with the port of New York.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND SPECIE, OF THE COLLINS LINE, OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	Specie.
January 8.....	Baltic	10	16	50	$484
" 22.....	Pacific.....	11	18	84	208,630
February 5.....	Arctic.....	11	5	30	125,000
March 5.....	Baltic	11	16	79	2,326
" 19.....	Pacific.....	10	20	60	317,940
April 2.....	Arctic.....	12	2	124	212,880
" 16.....	Baltic	12	4	197	160,000
May 10.....	Pacific.....	9	20	238	375,350
" 24.....	Arctic.....	11	..	144	425,380
June 7	Baltic	10	6	168	837,000
" 21	Pacific.....	10	4	160	931,000
July 5.....	Arctic.....	10	5	125	780,000
" 19.....	Baltic	10	4	70	620,000
August 6	Atlantic	10	..	68	106,670
" 16	Pacific.....	10	4	70	413,000
" 30	Baltic	10	2	63	557,970
September 13	Atlantic	10	14	65	288,400
" 27	Pacific.....	10	2	88	611,857
October 11.....	Baltic	10	9	78	10,000
" 25.....	Atlantic	12	15	40	372,750
November 8.....	Pacific.....	11	..	46	858,120
" 22.....	Baltic	11	10	59	1,096,644
December 6	Atlantic	11	11	33	837,500
" 20	Arctic	11	9	40	371,440
Total.....		261	04	2,129	$10,520,341
Average time...		10	21	10	

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND AMOUNT OF DUTIES OF THE COLLINS LINE INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passen's.	A't of duties.
January 1.....	Baltic, *via* Provincetown....	17	..	106	$120,536 60
" 27.....	Arctic, *via* Halifax.....	16	..	37	154,786 20
February 19.....	Baltic.....	11	21	31	185,846 90
" 19.....	Cambria, with Atlantic's car'o	..	..	..	146,503 40
March 6.....	Pacific.....	12	2	22	162,402 75
" 23.....	Arctic.....	14	18	15	67,206 25
April 3.....	Baltic.....	12	8	26	73,759 95
" 19.....	Pacific.....	9	19	20	33,259 20
May 11.....	Arctic.....	10	19	15	17,552 70
" 24.....	Baltic.....	10	7	37	16,977 95
June 6.....	Pacific.....	10	2	60	25,689 72
" 22.....	Arctic.....	11	5	97	68,693 91
July 5.....	Baltic.....	9	22	94	119,119 45
" 21.....	Pacific.....	12	4	120	182,455 80
August 3.....	Atlantic.....	10	15	132	192,809 45
" 11.....	Arctic.....	11	6	36	128,466 15
" 16.....	Baltic.....	9	13	148	68,890 10
September 1.....	Atlantic.....	11	14	182	72,189 50
" 14.....	Pacific.....	10	17	192	58,730 15
" 28.....	Baltic.....	10	20	102	32,712 18
October 15.....	Atlantic.....	13	15	155	24,129 50
" 26.....	Pacific.....	11	..	143	21,961 60
November 9.....	Baltic.....	10	19	92	17,765 25
" 23.....	Atlantic.....	10	14	60	15,810 85
December 7.....	Pacific.....	11	7	47	24,545 85
" 23.....	Baltic.....	13	5	61	90,186 20
Total.....		293	8	2,027	$2,122,537 56
Average time.....		11	17	30	

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND SPECIE OF THE CUNARD LINE OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	Specie.
January 1.....	Africa.....	10	14	51	$218,718
" 29.....	Asia.....	10	19	70	272,537
February 26.....	Africa.....	10	11	79	211,179
March 26.....	Asia.....	10	8	102	706,500
April 23.....	Africa.....	10	14	175	558,238
May 7.....	Asia.....	10	10	140	372,509
" 21.....	Europa.....	11	1	110	579,000
June 4.....	Africa.....	10	19	142	681,000
" 18.....	Asia.....	10	3	150	1,115,920
July 2.....	Niagara.....	11	3	91	950,328
" 16.....	Africa.....	10	9	94	1,101,543
" 30.....	Asia.....	11	1	153	641,500
August 13.....	Niagara.....	11	2	69	415,000
" 27.....	Africa.....	10	13	71	857,333
September 10.....	Asia.....	10	17	80	995,395
" 24.....	Niagara.....	12	17	55	535,000
October 8.....	Africa.....	10	13	88	500,000
" 22.....	Asia.....	10	17	61	380,000
November 5.....	Niagara.....	12	17	31	945,398
" 19.....	Canada.....	14	2	55	1,295,992
December 3.....	Africa.....	11	7	62	1,425,992
" 17.....	America.....	11	14	30	1,120,000
" 31.....	Europa.....	13	10	53	847,494
Total.....		257	01	2,012	$16,726,675
Average time.....		11	4	13	

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS, AND AMOUNT OF DUTIES OF THE CUNARD LINE INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	A't of Duties.
January 17	Asia	13	9	58	$252,243 90
February 16	Africa	14	9	118	327,643 85
March 14	Asia	12	20	91	157,119 15
April 10	Africa	11	21	104	128,369 25
" 28	Asia	10	17	79	107,685 80
May 8	Europa	11	14	28	91,278 15
" 21	Africa	10	16	98	61,655 25
June 4	Asia	10	14	88	96,443 90
" 20	Niagara	12	17	63	156,506 45
July 2	Africa	11	1	68	220,936 85
" 16	Asia	10	23	115	174,925 70
August 1	Niagara	12	4	113	136,289 05
" 12	Africa	10	6	104	147,744 20
" 28	Asia	12	5	173	145,693 65
September 11	Niagara	12	3	134	100,859 41
" 24	Africa	10	19	144	89,080 45
October 10	Asia	12	16	124	66,325 50
" 25	Niagara	13	21	109	40,295 50
November 9	Canada	11	12	115	322 75
" 19	Africa	11	2	101	110,384 95
December 5	America	13	10	44	76,461 95
" 23	Europa, *via* Halifax	16	21	35	140,734 65
Total		267	40	2,100	$2,829,001 31
Average time		12	15	7	

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND SPECIE OF THE HAVRE LINE OUT OF NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Days.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	Specie.
February 8	Franklin	12	10	49	$188,000
April 5	Franklin	13	..	100	568,952
May 6	Humboldt	12	16	90	858,031
" 31	Franklin	11	6	140	968,630
June 28	Humboldt	12	10	101	872,126
July 26	Franklin	12	4	78	960,000
August 23	Humboldt	12	8	36	187,047
September 30	Franklin	11	23	63	692,834
October 18	Humboldt	12	16	64	279,925
November 15	Franklin	12	20	45	559,346
December 13	Humboldt	13	9	25	570,000
Total		137	2	791	$6,704,891
Average passage		12	10		

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND AMOUNT OF DUTIES OF THE HAVRE LINE INTO PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR '51.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	A't of duties.
January 16	Franklin	14	6	41	$311,378 50
March 22	Franklin	14	..	33	129,536 90
May 19	Franklin	11	14	97	76,455 05
June 17	Humboldt	12	12	60	89,182 70
July 14	Franklin	11	5	102	329,079 80
August 12	Humboldt	12	18	79	129,998 80
September 8	Franklin	11	12	108	100,096 20
October 8	Humboldt	14	1	133	68,430 05
November 2	Franklin	10	15	136	61,975 65
December 5	Humboldt	14	15	65	73,956 90
Total		127	2	854	$1,370,090 55
Average passage		12	16		

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND SPECIE OF THE BREMEN LINE OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	Specie.
February 22.....	Washington	16	..	50	$37,574
March 29.....	Hermann.....	15	..	94	43,770
April 29.....	Washington	13	12	54	95,384
May 17.....	Hermann.....	14	12	85	47,120
June 14.....	Washington	12	12	104	265,684
July 12.....	Hermann.....	13	12	90	325,000
August 12.....	Washington	12	18	94	7,956
September 6.....	Hermann.....	15	..	28	357,540
October 18.....	Washington	14	..	33	43,619
November 1.....	Hermann.....	17	..	30	70,666
Total		143	18	662	$1,194,314
Average passage.....		14	9		

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF DAYS PASSAGE, PASSENGERS AND AMOUNT OF DUTIES OF THE BREMEN LINE INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passage. D.	H.	Passengers.	Am't of Duties.
January 8.....	Washington	17	..	45	$169,159 95
April 10,.....	Washington	15	..	81	55,980 35
May 9.....	Hermann.....	13	18	91	54,909 52
June 2.....	Washington	11	22	142	52,303 10
July 2.....	Hermann.....	13	12	124	133,506 85
" 31.....	Washington	14	5	166	157,104 70
August 29	Herman.....	16	..	192	86,691 95
September 23	Washington	12	20	186	40,640 95
October 23.....	Hermann.....	14	21	160	46,429 05
November 28.....	Washington	13	14	141	23,698 90
December 23.....	Hermann.....	19	12	63	71,700 79
Total		152	4	1,391	$892,126 02
Average passage.....		13	20		

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS OF VANDERBILT'S LINE, OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passengers.
January 27.....	Prometheus.....	32
February 29	Prometheus.....	64
March 28.....	Prometheus.....	172
April 28	Prometheus.....	122
June 13.....	Prometheus.....	112
August 15.....	Prometheus.....	63
September 12.....	Prometheus.....	225
October 7	Prometheus...	300
" 22	Daniel Webster	400
November 8.....	Prometheus....	316
" 22.....	Daniel Webster	367
December 6.....	Prometheus.....	275
" 22.....	Daniel Webster	420
Total number of passengers.....		2,768

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF PASSENGERS AND SPECIE OF VANDERBILT'S LINE INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passengers.	Specie.
January 21	Prometheus	244	.....
March 24	Prometheus	232	$7,395
April 18	Prometheus	246	.....
May 19	Prometheus	324	19,121
July 8	Prometheus	240	.....
August 13	Prometheus	360	178,572
September 5	Prometheus	240	50,000
October 4	Prometheus	466	123,081
November 6	Prometheus	518	2,684
" 16	Daniel Webster	460	117,348
December 1	Prometheus	410	120,677
" 19	Daniel Webster	302	128,117
" 29	Prometheus	285	63,000
Total		4,327	$809,995

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS OF THE UNITED STATES AND PACIFIC MAIL STEAMSHIP COMPANIES, OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Steamships.	Passeng'rs.	Date.	Steamships.	Passeng's.
January 11	Georgia	160	July 28	Ohio	225
" 13	Empire City	87	August 11	Empire City	75
" 20	Crescent City	15	" 12	Georgia	360
" 25	Ohio	112	" 26	Cherokee	80
" 27	Falcon	36	" 28	Illinois	400
" 28	Cherokee	170	September 11	Empire City	184
February 11	Georgia	140	" 13	Ohio	616
" 13	Empire City	203	" 26	Georgia	240
" 26	Ohio	140	" 27	Illinois	620
" 29	Crescent City	244	October 7	Cherokee	150
March 11	Georgia	208	" 11	Empire City	350
" 13	Empire City	84	" 13	Ohio	603
" 26	Ohio	230	" 22	Philadelphia	280
" 28	Cherokee	305	" 25	Illinois	564
April 10	Empire City	117	" 25	Georgia	200
" 11	Georgia	251	November 6	Cherokee	304
" 26	Ohio	240	" 10	Empire City	210
" 29	El Dorado	86	" 11	Ohio	572
May 12	Georgia	108	" 22	Illinois	542
" 13	Empire City	236	" 24	Georgia	300
" 26	Cherokee	82	December 1	Falcon	250
" 28	Crescent City	210	" 6	Cherokee	268
June 11	Georgia	106	" 9	Empire City	218
" 13	Empire City	208	" 11	Ohio	375
" 26	Cherokee	80	" 22	El Dorado	270
" 28	Crescent City	287	" 26	Georgia	619
July 11	Georgia	178			
" 12	Empire City	250	Total		13,528
" 26	Cherokee	89			

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL, NUMBER OF PASSENGERS AND SPECIE OF THE UNITED STATES AND PACIFIC MAIL STEAMSHIP COMPANIES INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Steamships.	Passengers.	Specie.
January 6	Georgia	540	$223,732
" 6	Crescent City	400	1,354,298
" 21	Cherokee	250	861,887
" 24	Falcon	325	14,484
February 7	Empire City	212	736,064
" 8	Georgia	351	105,093
" 18	Crescent City	218	8,126

Date.	Steamships.	Passengers.	Specie.
February 23	Cherokee	102	464,845
" 23	Ohio	132	774,930
March 8	Empire City	159	689,646
" 8	Georgia	133	390,178
" 21	Crescent City	127	517,275
" 22	Ohio	97	325,960
April 7	Empire City	261	938,390
" 8	Georgia	160	.....
" 12	El Dorado	167	.....
" 20	Cherokee	159	403,119
" 24	Ohio	200	575,299
May 5	Georgia	224	1,269,426
" 8	Crescent City	20	.....
" 17	El Dorado	177	.....
" 21	Ohio	229	1,000,682
June 3	Empire City	282	1,151,210
" 5	Georgia	179	.....
" 19	Crescent City	527	490,700
" 21	Cherokee	105	.....
July 6	Empire City	375	1,124,323
" 6	Georgia	200	.....
" 20	Crescent City	146	1,004,987
" 21	Cherokee	200	.....
August 7	Empire City	336	1,400,000
" 7	Georgia	280	.....
" 21	Cherokee	151	1,640,689
September 6	Empire City	150	.....
" 7	Georgia	414	1,497,176
" 20	Illinois	419	1,228,283
" 22	Cherokee	198	.....
October 7	Ohio	508	1,435,711
" 7	Empire City	150	101,107
" 18	Illinois	374	1,557,358
" 28	Georgia	120	.....
November 2	Cherokee	428	1,119,163
" 4	Empire City	87	.....
" 5	Ohio	180	30,000
" 19	Georgia	400	1,439,650
" 26	Falcon	61	.....
" 29	Cherokee	209	1,592,004
December 6	Empire City	52	1,082
" 7	Ohio	112	15,175
" 21	Georgia	390	1,446,000
Total		5,577	$28,827,553

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF SAILING AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS OF MILLS' LINE OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Steamships.	Passengers.
March 19	Brother Jonathan	175
May 26	Brother Jonathan	159
June 26	Brother Jonathan	231
July 28	Brother Jonathan	190
August 28	Brother Jonathan	278
September 17	Brother Jonathan	411
November 1	Brother Jonathan	410
December 1	Brother Jonathan	412
" 29	Independence	359
Total passengers		2,650

STATEMENT SHOWING THE DAY OF ARRIVAL AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS OF MILLS' LINE, OUT OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Date.	Name.	Passengers.	Specie.
May 13.....	Brother Jonathan.....	141	$2,000
June 20.....	Brother Jonathan.....	306	54,000
July 17.....	Brother Jonathan.....	238	2,750
August 30.....	Brother Jonathan.....	400	.....
September 23.....	Brother Jonathan.....	248	.....
October 28.....	Brother Jonathan.....	127	813
November 28.....	Brother Jonathan.....	300	14,575
Total.....		1,760	$74,139

EFFECT OF RAILROADS ON COMMERCIAL CITIES.

Mr. Poor, of the *American Railroad Journal*, in a brief editorial, gives a most striking as well as correct illustration of the effect of railroads in enlarging the circle of business of cities, as follows:—

The city of New York is now accessible from every part of New England (with the exception of the eastern part of Maine) and the State of New York, by one day's journey on railroads. A traveler may leave Waterville, Me., which is 430 miles distant from New York; Montreal, Canada, which is 400; and Dunkirk and Buffalo, which are about 470, in the morning, and reach this city the same evening by continuous lines of railroad, at an average charge of two cents per mile. Light articles of freight, newspapers, etc., are forwarded to, and received from the same points with equal dispatch; so that the six millions of people residing within the States named, are within one day's time of this city. And in the evening, the most remote parts of it are, in the ordinary course of the mail, put into possession of our morning news; and, on the other hand, our shops and the stands in our markets display the delicacies and dainties which the morning light shone upon some 400 miles distant. The whole country within this distance, by means of railroads, is made the market garden of the city, and every inhabitant is brought into as intimate relation to it, as was the person who lived within 30 miles a few years since. A trip of a day is now sufficient to bring nearly every inhabitant of New York and New England to this city, and who may, if they choose, return home the next.

These facts will serve to show the influence that railroads are exerting, in the facilities they give in the movement of persons and property. To a city they increase the area of country tributary to it in a much a greater ratio than the length of their lines. To give a clearer idea, we will briefly illustrate this proposition. We will assume that the speed of the ordinary loaded team on common roads is 2½ miles per hour, for 12 hours, which will give 30 miles as the extent of a day's travel, and 60 miles as the diameter of the circle from which a city without railroads could draw its *daily* supplies of food, etc. This would give an area of country of not far from 2,700 square miles.

The freight train on a railroad moves at an average rate of 12 miles an hour, or 288 miles in 24 hours. The circle within daily reach of a city by freight trains on railroads would be 576 miles, embracing an area of 124,416 square miles, or more than 46 times greater than the circle within reach of the same point by the ordinary wagon! By the use of railroads, therefore, a city increases its capacity for business, as well as its supplies of food, and all the articles used in the economy of life, 4,600 per cent!

It will be found upon calculation that the difference in cost of the two modes of carriage supposed, is in about the same ratio as the above distances.

The above statements are a most striking, as well as correct illustration, of the value of railroads, and demonstrate most clearly their importance in increasing the business of commercial, or trading points, and proves how necessary they are to farming communities, in creating a value for their products, in opening a market for them. They explain the rapid growth of cities, that are the *termini* of a large number of railroads, and the rapid appreciation in the value of the country they traverse. With an ordinary road, a farmer living sixty miles from a city may be without a market for many of his most important articles of produce from the cost of transportation, while another living upon a railroad but 400 miles from the same point, finds a ready sale for all he can raise at remunerating rates.

STATISTICS OF LOCOMOTIVES ON THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD.

Engines.	Placed on road.	No. of drivers.	Size of drivers, ft.	Size of drivers, in.	Total miles run.	Cost of repairs.	Cost per 100 miles run, of Repairs.	Cost per 100 miles run, of Tallow, oil, and waste.	Cost per 100 miles run, of Fuel.	Total expenses per 100 miles run.	Repairs per ton on drivers per 100 miles run.	Expense per ton on drivers per 100 miles run.	Weight.	Weight on drivers.
Allegheny.*a*..	July 9, 1850	4	4	6	37,083	$742 20.9	$2 00	$0 66¼	$7 29	$9 95¼	$0 15½	$0 77	45,275	25,825
Armstrong.*a*..	Dec. 22, 1850	4	5	0	41,878	582 17.7	1 39	0 51	6 65	8 55	0 12	0 75	38,675	22,875
Blair.*a*.....	Sep. 23, 1849	2	6	0	4,206	270 69.9	6 43	1 01½	7 33½	14 78	0 61½	1 40¼	48,150	21,000
Beaver.*a*.....	Sep. 10, 1850	8	3	6	15,874	440 83.9	2 77¾	1 44	12 94	17 15¾	0 12¾	0 79	43,350	43,350
Cambria.....	Jan. 22, 1850	4	4	6	23,824	845 34.1	3 54¾	1 08½	7 72½	12 35½	0 28	0 97¾	40,825	25,320
Clarion.*a*.....	July 22, 1850	4	4	6	25,039	449 11.9	1 79½	1 59	7 50½	10 88	0 14	0 84½	45,275	25,825
Clinton.*a*.....	Sep. 5, 1850	4	4	6	19,687	661 89.7	3 36½	1 10½	10 98	15 44	0 26½	1 21½	44,800	25,400
Columbia.*a*...	Sep. 18, 1850	4	4	6	33,484	637 02.5	1 90½	0 86½	9 22½	11 99	0 16	0 94½	44,800	25,400
Center.*a*.....	Dec. 9, 1850	4	4	6	27,901	347 45.4	1 24½	0 56¾	9 81	11 62½	0 09¾	0 91½	44,800	25,400
Clay	Oct. 16, 1849	2	4	0	11,434	369 98.4	3 23½	1 29½	6 63½	11 16½	0 46½	1 53	23,350	14,600
Clearfield.*a*...	.....	4	4	6	7,722	139 71.5	1 81	0 69	7 22	9 72	0 14½	0 76½	44,800	25,400
Crawford.*a*...	.....	4	4	6	6,913	161 08.5	2 33	0 71	7 15¾	10 19¾	0 18½	0 80½	44,800	25,400
Erie.*a*.....	Oct. 7, 1850	4	4	6	17,091	217 07.8	1 27	1 15¾	13 16½	15 59	0 10	1 22¾	44,800	25,400
Elk.*a*.....	Oct. 16, 1850	4	4	6	17,958	580 10.7	3 23	1 07¾	11 64¾	15 95½	0 25½	1 25½	44,800	25,400
Franklin.*a*....	Oct. 16, 1849	4	4	6	13,247	341 55.0	2 57¾	1 30	8 92	12 79¾	0 30¾	1 52¾	30,650	16,750
Huntingdon.*a*.	Nov. 16, 1849	4	4	6	22,671	1,008 81.6	4 45	1 11¾	9 08	14 64¾	0 34½	1 13½	45,275	25,825
Harrisburg.*a*..	Oct. 16, 1849	2	4	6	1,788	342 30.2	1 91½	1 75½	2 93	6 60	0 32	1 10	23,900	12,000
Heisley*.....	Oct. 16, 1849	4	4	0	2,038	2,145 32.2	105 26½	0 90½	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	.....	.....
Indiana.*a*	Jan. 22, 1850	2	6	0	8,760	440 72.5	5 03	0 58¾	9 09½	14 71	0 48	1 40	48,750	21,000
Juniata.*a*.....	Nov. 2, 1849	4	4	6	27,332	988 55.8	3 61¾	0 90	7 77½	12 29½	0 28	0 95	45,275	25,825
Mifflin.*a*	Sep. 1, 1849	2	6	0	13,200	255 53.3	1 93½	0 68	6 87½	9 49	0 18½	0 90½	47,800	21,000
Penrose.*a*	Oct. 16, 1849	2	4	6	10,544	350 10.2	3 32	0 58¾	9 25½	13 16½	0 55½	2 19½	24,225	12,000
Venango.*a* ...	Oct. 29, 1850	4	4	6	28,450	310 77.8	1 09½	0 56½	10 45½	12 11½	0 08½	0 95½	44,800	25,400
Wyoming.*a*...	Nov. 25, 1850	4	5	0	35,820	498 37.3	1 39	0 58	6 60¾	8 57¾	0 12	0 75	36,675	22,875
Washington.*a*.	Oct. 16, 1849	6	3	6	7,678	446 43.7	5 81½	1 12½	9 20½	16 14	0 33½	0 93	34,675	34,675
Westmorel'd.*a*.	Sep. 7, 1850	8	3	7	15,963	588 07.0	3 68½	1 50	13 85	19 03½	0 14½	0 74¾	50,975	50,975

Average cost of repairs per 100 miles run on Pennsylvania Railroad $2 92

Average cost of repairs per 100 miles run on Baltimore and Ohio Railroad..... 5 73

* Formerly the Porter—Rebuilt this year, 1851.

Engines marked (*a*) were built by M. W. Baldwin, the remainder by Norris & Brother.

TOLLS ON JAMES RIVER AND KANAWHA CANAL.

TARIFF OF TOLLS PER TON OF 2,000 LBS. PER MILE, TO BE CHARGED ON THE JAMES RIVER AND KANAWHA CANAL, ADOPTED THE 6TH DAY OF FEBRUARY, 1852, TO GO INTO OPERATION ON THE FIRST DAY OF MARCH, 1852.

ARTICLES AT 4 CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Anvils, ale, beer, bellows, books, burr-blocks, butter, candles, carpenters' work, carriages, crackers, cheese, Chinaware, confectionary, copper, copperas, cordage, cotton, cotton yarn and cotton bagging, cutlery, drugs, dry goods, dyestuffs, eggs, fancy articles, furniture, (household,) furs and peltry, fruits, foreign articles not otherwise designated, glass and glassware, hair, (curled,) hardware, hats, caps, &c., hides and skins, (dry,) honey, hops and herbs, joiners' work, leather, lemons, licorice, liquors, machinery, mechanics' tools, metals not otherwise designated, millstones, oil of all kinds, oranges, oysters not in the shell, paints, paper, pink-root, porter, poultry, powder, putty, raisins, rice, saddlery, saltpeter, stationery, seed of all kinds not otherwise designated, cigars, steam-engines, steel, spices, spirits turpentine, shoes and boots, snuff, sulphur, tallow, teas, tin and tinware, venison, vices, wrapping paper, woodware, zinc.

ARTICLES AT 3½ CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Bacon, beef, (salted and fresh,) coffee, groceries not otherwise designated, hempen yarns, lard mutton, pork, (salted and fresh,) sugar, wool.

ARTICLES AT 3 CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Beeswax, cider, earthen and queensware, hemp, mahogany, moss, nails and spikes, soap, tobacco of all kinds, vinegar.

ARTICLES AT 2½ CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Agricultural products not otherwise designated, ashes, (pot and pearl,) apples and other dried fruits, chalk, feathers, fish, (salted and fresh,) ginseng and other roots, logwood, molasses, snake-root.

ARTICLES AT 2 CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Agricultural implements, barley, beans, buckwheat and buckwheat flour, castings, (iron,) flax and flaxseed, flour, grindstones, hides, (green,) iron, (bar and railroad,) lead, (bar and pig,) marble, (dressed,) peas, pitch, potters' and stoneware, rosin, rye, stone, (dressed,) shot and shells, (cast iron,) shot, (lead,) tar, tobacco, (stems and scraps,) turpentine, wheat.

ARTICLES AT 1½ CENTS PER TON PER MILE.

Apples and other green fruits, bark, (ground and unground,) barrels, casks, and boxes, (empty,) bloom-iron, caps, sills and dressed timber, salt.

ARTICLES AT 1 CENT PER TON PER MILE.

Bran and other mill offal, charcoal, coal-tar, coal and coke passing down the canal, corn and cornmeal, fruit trees and other shrubbery, hay, fodder, shucks, straw, &c., passing up canal, live-stock; ores, (except iron,) oats, (clean and sheaf,) oysters in shells, pig-iron, potatoes of all kinds, rags and waste cotton, scrap-iron and old castings, shingles, vegetables.

ARTICLES AT ½ CENT PER TON PER MILE.

Cement, clay, earth, and gravel, coal and coke passing up canal, ice, hay, fodder, and sheaf-oats, coming down canal, lime passing up canal, limestone, marble, (rough,) mineral water, posts for fencing, slates for roofing, staves and heading, timber of all kinds, (undressed,) tiles for roofing.

ARTICLES AT ¼ CENT PER TON PER MILE.

Stone, (rough.)

ARTICLE AT 1-5TH CENT PER TON PER MILE.

Bricks, iron-ore, lime passing down canal, oyster-shells.

ARTICLES PAYING 12½ CENTS PER TON FOR ALL DISTANCES.

Coke and coal for burning lime for improvement of the soil, wood for fuel, manures of all kinds and articles used as manure, rails for fencing.

Hoop-poles and laths, 25 cents per ton for all distances.
Paving-stone and sand, 5 cents per ton for all distances.
Corn and cornmeal, from Foushee's Mills to Richmond, 1 cent per bushel.
Pig-iron transported from Richmond upwards to any point short of Maiden's Adventure, for the purpose of being manufactured into nails and other manufactured articles, 25 cents per ton of 2,000 lbs. per mile, instead of that now charged under the tariff of the Old James River Canal.
All articles transported only on the lower level of the canal, will be charged with one-half the tolls charged on the Old Canal, except in cases provided for by special resolutions of the Board of Directors.
No rough stone transported on the canal to pay for a less distance than 20 miles.
On all articles, except coal, mill offal, manures of all kinds, and articles used as manure, hoop-poles and laths, rails for fencing, lime for the improvement of the soil, paving-stone, sand, and wood for fuel, transported on any portion of the enlarged Old Canal, (between Richmond and Maiden's Adventure,) the tolls shall be equal at least to those charged on the Old Canal.

TOLLS ON PASSENGERS.

On white persons, 12 years old and upwards, 1 cent per mile.
On white persons, between 12 and 5 years old, ½ cent per mile.
On colored persons, 5 years old and upwards, ½ cent per mile.
Toll on passengers, two mills per mile in favor of any boat that carries passengers, at a rate not exceeding $3 50 per passenger, exclusive of meals, from Richmond to Lynchburg, and *vice versa*, and in that proportion for the way travel along the line of the canal. The former discrimination shall be made for children and servants. Tolls on passengers on all other boats than packet-boats shall be the same as shall be exacted from the latter for each passenger.

BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The Boston and Worcester Railroad Company was incorporated in 1831, and the road opened July 4th, 1835. Its length (from Boston to Worcester, is 45 miles,) including branches is 69 miles. The present fare is $1 15. It has a double track between Boston and Worcester. The cost of the road Jan. 1, 1852, was $4,862,700.

The following table has been compiled by GEORGE A. FOXCROFT, Esq.; it exhibits the operations of the road during the last ten years, its cost, and the market price of the stock at the beginning of each year. The item of "interest" is deducted from the receipts and expenses:—

Year.	Cost.	Value of stock.	Gross receipts.	Running expenses.	Net income.	Dividends.
1842.....	$2,374,500	$109 per sh.	.....	$168,510	$180,697	7 per cent.
1843.....	2,764,400	107 "	.....	206,641	176,726	6 "
1844.....	2,836,200	114 "	$413	233,264	193,139	7½ "
1845.....	2,914,100	120 "	487,455	249,729	237,726	8 "
1846.....	.....	116 "	554,712	283,876	270,836	8 "
1847.....	3,485,200	112 "	723,170	381,986	340,184	10 "
1848.....	4,113,600	115 "	716,284	381,917	334,367	8½ "
1849.....	4,650,400	106 "	703,361	405,551	297,810	6 "
1850.....	4,908,300	93 "	757,947	377,041	380,906	6½ "
1851.....	4,882,600	102 "	743,923	392,687	350,000	7 "
			5,844,839	3,085,212	2,702,627	7 9-20 avg.

RAILROADS IN CALIFORNIA.

The *Alta California* predicts, at no distant day, the whizzing of locomotives, as they are rushing with lightning speed over the plains of California, and expresses at the same time the hope that she may be the first to claim the honor of constructing a railroad of any note on the coast of the Pacific. Of the railroad character of the State, the *Alta California* remarks:—

"It is a mistaken idea, which has been entertained by some, that the character of

our State, its lofty hills and deep valleys, will prevent it being ever a railroad country. Although it would be a difficult task to run a train of cars along the coast range of mountains, or pierce the fastnesses of the Sierra Nevada, yet from the great central points of our State to nearly all the prominent towns in the mining region, the character of the country is such as to afford the greatest facility for the laying of rails. The great valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, capable of supporting, from their agricultural products, a vastly greater population than now inhabit the whole State, and on whose sides are scattered the riches which have made California the cynosure upon which the world's eyes are gazing, are broad and level, and in every way adapted for railroads. That the northern portion of our State is to be the thickly settled portion, there can be scarcely a doubt; and as it fills up with permanent settlers, the descendants of the Anglo-Saxon race, greater facilities for travel than at present exist, must be afforded, and if obstacles are found in the way they will be removed. But what is to prevent the construction of a railroad track from Sacramento City, to the great mining regions of the Yuba, the Middle and North Forks of the American, and the various settlements in the immediate vicinity of these rivers? Or from Stockton to the Mokelumne, Stanislaus, and the mining settlements south of them? Or from San Francisco and Monterey to both? True, at present the price of labor is an obstacle, but this will settle down, ere long, to a proper standard. We have, in our own borders, extensive quarries of stone, and noble oaks, and lofty pines, which could be used in construction; and there is little doubt that, ere long, discoveries of coal will be made, as hundreds, if not thousands, throughout our State, are searching in every nook and corner for the riches of the earth in some form.",

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

AFRICAN ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.

The *Christian Statesman*, furnishes an interesting statement of African Arts and Manufactures, as follows:—

Travelers in Africa all coincide in one important particular, namely, that the natives of that continent exhibit a remarkable degree of genius, and display in their numerous manufactured articles such a knowledge of mechanics as to agreeably surprise all who have heard of or been privileged to behold their handiwork.

Iron ore of superior quality is found in immense quantities, and from it are made, by the untaught natives, ornamental and useful articles, such as spears, arrows, rings, chains, hoes, bracelets, &c. A small but regular amount of this material, made into a peculiar shape, is called a "bar," and appears to be the standard of value by which their currency is regulated.

They are exceedingly skillful in the tanning and manufacture of leather. Their amulet cases, spears and dagger-sheaths, whips, bridles, pouches, powder-flasks, sandals, boots, &c., are made with remarkable neatness.

In addition to these may be named their war-horns made from the tusks of elephants and other animals; their musical instruments—the strings of the "banjo" being formed from the fibres of trees. Their bags for carrying materials, and baskets of all sizes and descriptions, are wrought with great symmetry and beauty from seagrass, and the leaves of their innumerable and useful trees, plants, &c. The palm tree, says a traveler, "is applied by them to three hundred and sixty-five uses. Huts are thatched with palm leaves; its fibers are used for fishing tackle, ropes, sieves, twine, &c.; a rough cloth is made from the inner bark; the fruit is roasted, and is excellent; the oil serves for butter; and the wine is a favorite drink."

In some portions of Africa, they are exceedingly skillful in making canoes. These are dug out of trees, and are amazingly large. Some are capable of carrying from fifty to one hundred and fifty persons, besides ten or twelve hands to pull. Mats in abundance, of all kinds, sizes, and qualities, are manufactured, chiefly by the women. These mats are used for many purposes—to sleep on, partition off rooms, for bed-curtains, bags, carpets, &c.; the fine ones make nice table covers, and are used for clothing. They look as if they were woven—are sometimes eight feet wide, and fifteen or twenty feet long.

Clothes are made in abundance; they are spun (without any wheel) from the native cotton, and woven in a strip from five to ten inches wide, then cut to the length they want the cloth, and sewed together. Various figures are made in weaving. The

colors handsome and permanent. Pottery made of clay is very common, and stands the fire as well as any other; the vessels are of all sizes, from a quart to twenty gallons. Hats, similar to the American palm-leaf summer hats, are made in various styles, and are much superior to the American article—more durable and fine.

In making clothes, the Mandingoes are very expert to cut and sew shirts and other kinds of garments, and in making their caps and robes.

Wooden spoons of a neat, fine quality, are also produced; and bowls, fine and superior, from a pint to a half-barrel, neat and cheap. Wooden fish-hooks are made, and much used; large fish-baskets, also, for catching fish. Many of their gree-grees display much skill in their manufacture. Soap, good and cheap, is abundant. Jugs, bottles, bowls, are made, (earthen,) and a multitude of other little things we cannot now mention, very ingenious and skillful.

The native African, it is to be understood, is naturally indolent; and although the various articles of labor here mentioned would perhaps convey the impression that they are an industrious people, yet the contrary is the fact.

What a market is here opened for the sale of our manufactures! Who can rightly calculate the amount of employment it would afford the operatives and workmen of our land to clothe her unnumbered millions, and the enormous trade that she could afford us in the luxuries, and what we consider the necessities, of life, from her prolific tropical soil!

Well might the poet, speaking of Africa, exclaim:

> "Regions immense, unsearchable, unknown,
> Bask in the splendors of the solar zone;
> A world of wonders—where creation seems
> No more the work of Nature, but her dreams."

THE EARLY MANUFACTURE OF IRON IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Samuel Hazard, Esq., now in the employment of the government of Pennsylvania, in collecting materials from the colonial records for official publication, furnishes some interesting statistics of Iron from 1749 to 1756, which we here subjoin:—

AN ACCOUNT OF IRON MADE AT THE SEVERAL FORGES IN THE PROVINCE OF PENNSYLVANIA, FROM CHRISTMAS, 1749, TO THE 5TH OF JANUARY, 1756; AS THE SAME WAS RETURNED TO THE HON. WM. DENNY, ESQ., LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF THIS PROVINCE, BY THE RESPECTIVE OWNERS OF THE SAID FORGES.

PINE FORGE.

					Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.
From Christmas,	1749,	to	25th Dec.,	1750..	103	5	0	0				
" 25th Dec.	1750	"		1751..	122	0	0	0				
" "	1751	"		1752..	109	3	0	16				
" "	1752	"		1753..	112	4	1	18				
" "	1753	"		1754..	161	5	0	0				
" "	1754	"		1755..	135	10	0	0				
" "	1755	to	5th Jan,,	1756..	3	15	0	0				
									747	12	2	6

POOL FORGE.

From 25th Dec.,	1749	to	25th Dec.,	1750..	78	10	1	2				
" "	1750	"		1751..	77	17	0	17				
" "	1752	"		1752..	72	11	1	13				
" "	1752	"		1753..	89	5	3	2				
									313	4	2	6

GLASGOW FORGE.

From 19th Sept.,	1750,	to	9th Nov.,	1751..	108	15	0	0				
" 9th Nov.,	1751,	to	16th Dec.,	1752..	106	8	0	0				
" 16th Dec.,	1752,	to	16th Dec.,	1753..	119	5	0	0				
" 16th Dec.,	1753,	to	21st Dec.,	1754..	115	11	0	0				
" 21st Dec.,	1754,	to	21st Dec.,	1755..	137	12	0	0				
" 21st Dec.,	1755,	to	5th Jan.,	1756..	7	16	0	0				
									595	7	0	0

POTTSGROVE FORGE.

From 25th Dec.,	1755,	to	25th Dec.,	1756..					64	15	0	0

COVENTRY FORGE.

	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.
From 25th Dec., 1749, to 25th Dec., 1750..	45	8	1	14				
" " 1750 " 1751..	47	5	0	21				
" " 1751 " 1752..	48	3	1	7				
" " 1752 " 1753..	50	2	1	19				
" " 1753 " 1754..	51	5	2	9				
" " 1754 " 1755..	52	2	3	7				
" " 1755 " 1756..	45	1	2	8				
	—	—	—	—	339	9	1	1

WINDSOR FORGE.

From 25th Dec., 1749, to 31st Dec., 1750..	90	0	2	7				
" 31st 1750 " 1751..	77	17	1	23				
" " 1751 " 1752..	97	11	2	5				
" " 1752 " 1753..	48	16	1	6				
" " 1753 " 1754..	99	18	1	13				
" " 1754 " 1755..	78	8	2	7				
" " 1755 to 5th Jan., 1756..	3	2	0	0				
	—	—	—	—	495	14	3	5

HELMSTEAD FORGE.

From 25th Dec., 1749, to 25th Dec., 1750..	59	5	1	7				
" " 1750 " 1751..	46	16	2	26				
" " 1751 " 1752..	89	5	2	0				
" " 1752 " 1753..	51	0	1	27				
" " 1753 " 1754..	101	1	0	9				
" " 1754 " 1755..	69	5	0	16				
" " 1755 " 1756..	63	9	0	21				
	—	—	—	—	480	3	1	21

UNION FORGE.—(Built 1750.)

Made in the year 1751.....	45	7	2	0				
From 25th Dec., 1751, to 25th Dec., 1752..	54	10	3	0				
" " 1752 " 1753..	53	16	3	0				
" " 1753 " 1754..	46	13	2	0				
" " 1754 " 1755..	60	5	1	0				
" " 1755 " 1756..	81	10	2	0				
	—	—	—	—	342	7	1	0
Total.....					3,378	13	3	11

STRENGTH OF IRON.

For railway service, especially for railway axles and other material portions of the running gear, it is very essential that great strength should be obtained. The Lowmoor Iron deservedly stands high in the estimation of our railway managers. The following result of an experiment on *coupling chains* lately made at Manchester, in England, by the London and North-Western Railway company, will be interesting to the consumers of iron:—

Best Staffordshire Iron—first experiment—diameter of chain 1 1-8 inch; stretched 3 3-4 inches; broke with 27 tons, 10 cwt.

Best Staffordshire Iron—second experiment—diameter of chain 1 1-8 inch; stretched 4 1-8 inches; broke with 25 tons, 0 cwt.

Lowmoor Iron—diameter of chain 1 1-8 inch; stretched 7 inches; broke with 55 tons, 16 cwt.

The Staffordshire Iron was made expressly for the trial, and when great strength is desired, it is proper so to state, as there is a wide difference in the preparation of the different qualities. The New York Herald contains an account of several highly interesting experiments which have recently been made, with a view of testing the strength of iron manufactured from the Franklinite ore of New Jersey. The following table exhibits the strength of this iron, compared with the best manufactures of other countries:—

OMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF AMERICAN, ENGLISH, AND SWEDISH IRON—TREDGOLD'S TEST.

Best Swedish bar iron	lb. 72,804
Inferior Swedish bar iron	53,234
Best English bar iron	61,660
Inferior English bar iron	55,000
American manufactured from N. J. Franklinite bar iron	77,000

This test shows that the iron manufactured from Franklinite, is the strongest article of the kind now known; and it must command a ready sale, at high prices, for chain-cables, railway axles, and all other purposes where great strength is required. The question with manufacturers is quality, and the price of little consequence in comparison. In a trial in casting water pipes, by mixing a portion of Franklinite with bog ores, it was found that in attempting to break the castings, the sledge hammer made quite, an indentation in the castings before it broke, showing some malleability in cast iron, a very important desideratum. Iron manufactured of Franklinite, drawn down from a bar about one inch square, and accurately gauged, required a weight equal to 77,000 lbs. per square inch, to tear it asunder. This shows it to be nearly fifteen per cent better than any other iron known to Commerce.

The annexed assay on a bar of iron made from Franklinite, sent to the national forges of the government of France, from the mines in New Jersey, is the best evidence of its importance and immense value:—

VALUATION OF FRANKLINITE IRON.

REPUBLIQUE FRANCAISE, ADMINISTRATION DE LA MARINE, FORGES NATIONALES DE LA CHAUSSADE.

The bar obtained by direct treatment of the ore in the Catalan forge, is 25 millimetres by 24.5 millimetres, and presents a section in square millimetres of 612, m. 50.

	Kilograms.	M.
Charge under which bar began to stretch	15,000	
Elastic force per millimetre	24	5
Charge under which the bar broke	25,000	
Absolute tenacity per millimetre	40	8
Elongation of the bar at the moment of fracture, per millimetre.		8

Aspect of the fracture, all nerves; the bar was imperfectly welded and contained fissures which diminished the real surface exposed to fraction, in consequence of the absolute tenacity. Had the bar been sound, would have been greater than here appears—at the moment of fracture but little heat was disengaged.

The tensions of the hydraulic press of the national forges are given by means of an excellent apparatus, which indicates the results with the greatest precision. An immense number of experiments have been made with this press, not only upon all the irons of France, but upon the very best irons of England, Sweden, Spain, and Siberia. Never until the present assay has any bar been tried the absolute tenacity of which surpassed forty kilograms per millimetre.

(Signed,) TH. BORNET,
Chef des Travaux aux Forges Nationales de la Chaussade.

This ore is found in inexhaustible quantities in Sussex county, New Jersey, and nowhere else in the world. As interesting and as conclusive as these experiments appear, we learn that, in the course of a few days, developments will be made that will, without doubt, astonish the iron manufacturers of every country. It is undoubtedly true that cheaper and poorer qualities of iron can be manufactured abroad, imported into this country, and sold at prices below what our manufacturers can afford; but for all purposes where a superior article is required, iron manufactured from the Franklinite must monopolize the demand. It has been asserted that the numerous accidents to the machinery of our ocean steamships were in consequence of the poor quality of the iron used. If that is the only cause, it is now in a fair way of being removed. As soon as arrangements have been perfected for manufacturing iron from the Franklinite ore, we shall have the best article in the world, at prices comparatively moderate. Millions upon millions of dollars have been paid annually for importations of iron for our railways, and for all other purposes, while we have had, within a few miles of this city, the most valuable and extensive mines of a most superior ore untouched, and, until within a few years, unknown. The time has, however, arrived for the most rapid development of the mineral wealth of this country. Capital is cheap and abundant, and it cannot be more profitably employed than in thoroughly working the numerous valuable mines which are known to contain inexhaustible quantities of the richest ores. Great Britain has become the wealthiest and most powerful commercial

country in the world, directly through the products of her mines, and there is no reason why we should not immeasurably eclipse her through the same agency. Of all minerals, iron ore is the most valuable for all practical purposes. Gold is nothing compared with it. Before the lapse of many years the mining interest of the United States will, without doubt, be greater than any other, and those who are the pioneers in the movement will reap the richest harvest.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY DURING THE LAST AND PRESENT CENTURIES.

[From a Lecture delivered at the Manchester Mechanics' Institution, England, by W. Fairbairn, Esq.]

If we take—I will not say a statistical—but a cursory view of the recent position of Manchester and the surrounding districts, and compare it with what it was at the close of the last and the commencement of the present century, we shall find that at that period the useful and industrial arts were comparatively of little importance. We shall also find that the gems of a new and, above all others, an important branch of manufacturing industry were springing into existence. I have no returns of the state of our manufacturing industry at that period, but the writings of one of our earliest and most intelligent spinners, to whom this country is indebted for many improvements in machinery—Mr. John Kennedy—informs us that the spinning of cotton yarn antecedent to the year 1793 was of an exceedingly limited description. That gentleman, in his account of the rise and progress of the cotton trade, states that the hand-loom, as a machine, remained stationary for a great number of years, without any attempt at improvements until 1750, when Mr. John Kay, of Bolton, first introduced the fly-shuttle, and that the spinning of cotton yarn from that period and for many years previous, was almost entirely performed by the family of the manufacturer, at his own house. This united and simple process went on till it was found necessary to divide their labors, and to separate the weaving from the spinning, and that again, from the carding and other preparatory processes. This division of labor, as Mr. Kennedy truly says, led to improvements in the carding and spinning "by first introducing simple improvements in the hand instruments with which they performed these operations, till at length they arrived at a machine which, though rude and ill-constructed, enabled them considerably to increase their produce." Thus it was that improvements and the division of labor first led to the factory system, and that splendid and extensive process which at the present moment, and for many years to come, will affect the destinies of nations. From 1750 to 1770, when Mr. Hargreaves, of Blackburn, first introduced his spinning jenny (by means of which a young person could work from ten to twenty spindles instead of one,) there was little or no change; but a very material alteration took place shortly after the introduction of these improvements, which were immediately followed by Mr. Arkwright's machinery for carding and roving. These, accompanied by the introduction of Mr. Crompton's mule, in 1780, may be justly considered to constitute the origin of the factory system, which has now grown to such colossal dimensions, as to render it one of the most important and most extensive systems of manufacture ever known in the history of ancient or modern times. "Mr. Arkwright built his first mill at Cromford, in Derbyshire—(again quote from Mr. Kennedy)—in 1771. It was driven by water; but it was not till 1790, or some time after, when the steam-engine of Watt came into use, that the cotton trade advanced at such an accelerated speed as to render its increase and present magnitude almost beyond conception. This immense extension is not only a subject of deep interest to the philosopher and statesman, but one which is likely to furnish a large field of observation for the future historian of his country. I will not trouble you with the statistics of the cotton trade, as it now exists, but simply observe—as many of you are doubtless better informed on this subject than myself—that I am within the mark when I state that not less than 31,500 bales of cotton are consumed weekly in the two kingdoms, England and Scotland; that nearly 21,000,000 spindles are almost constantly in motion, spinning upwards of 105,000,000 hanks, or 50,000,000 miles of yarn per day—in length sufficient to circumscribe the globe 2,000 times. Out of this immense production, about 131,000,000 yards of yarn are exported; the remainder is converted into cloth, lace, and other textile fabrics. This marvelous increase, this immense extent of production, could not be effected without considerable changes in the prospects of the moral, as well as the physical, condition of society. It has entirely changed the position of the resident population of the district, and the secluded valleys, farm-houses, and neat cottages—the beauties of Lancashire landscape of the last generation—are rapidly giving way to the conversion of villages into populous towns,

with innumerable erections, which resound with the busy hum of the spindle and the shuttle. Along with these changes we see a new generation springing into existence, factories, steam-engines, and tall chimneys rising in every direction, and the noise and smoke which meet the eye and the ear of the stranger at every step, give evidence of the activity and prosperity of the industrious hive, which at some future time in English history will announce to succeeding generations the inventions and discoveries of the nineteenth century.

In this attempt to place before you a short account of the use and progress of our national industry, I must not forget that yarn, however finely and dexterously spun, is not cloth; and here we enter upon another and equally ingenious process The yarn must be woven before it is fit for use; and we shall find weaving one of the most interesting as well as elaborate operations of the useful arts. I need not inform you the ancient Hindoos, Egyptians, and probably the early Chinese, converted their yarn into cloth. The Indian and Oriental department of the Great Exhibition exhibited the mode and primitive character of their looms and other implements, which have been handed down from generation to generation from the earliest periods, without change or improvement, till the present day. Looms of this rude construction were introduced into Europe during the first glimpses of civilization, and for many centuries even the most advanced nations were content to use the same instruments, almost without improvement, until the introduction of the flying shuttle, and the subsequent invention of Hall and Arkwright opened a new and untrodden field for improvements in every department of art and manufacture. Power-looms at that period were unknown, and although attempts were made by Mr. Cartwright, as early as 1774, to convert the hand-loom into a machine to be moved by power, it was not until the beginning of the present century that the power-loom assumed its present form, and presented that intelligence of structure which rendered it self-acting, and enabled it to compete with the hand-loom weaver. From that time (about 1810 or 1812,) we may date the commencement of that increase to which that important branch of our manufacture was extended. The improvements introduced by Mr. Bennett Woodcroft and others, for weaving twills and similar fabrics, created new expedients and applications, and greatly increased the demand for this description of manufactures; whilst the inventions of Jacquard for weaving figured cloth, startled every one with their extreme ingenuity and beauty, and accomplished the perfection of machinery for the production of textile fabrics. The increase and extent of cloth manufactured from power-looms may be estimated from official returns kindly furnished me by Mr. Leonard Horner. There are now at work in the United Kingdom above 250,000 power-looms. Now, as each loom will, upon the average, produce from five to six pieces of cloth per week, each 28 yards long, say 25 yards a day per loom, we have 250,000, which, multiplied by 25, gives 6,250,000 yards or 3,551 English miles of cloth per day; the distance between Liverpool and New York. Only think of the importance and extent of a manufacture that employs upwards of 12,000 hands in weaving alone, supplying from that source (the power-loom) an annual produce of cloth that would extend over a surface, in a direct line, of upwards of 1,000,000 miles.

But although much has been done, much has yet to be accomplished before the supply equals the demand. It must appear obvious to those who have studied and watched the unwearied invention and continued advancement which have signalized the exertions of our engineering and mechanical industry. But neither difficulties nor dangers, however formidable, can stand against the indomitable spirit, skill, or perseverance of the English Engineer; nor will it be denied that the ingenuity and never-failing resources of our mechanical population are not only the sinews of our manufacture, railways, and steamboats, but the pride and glory of our own country. It is for this important class that I have ventured to address you, and I trust that the time is not far distant when we shall witness establishments suitable for their education; such as will teach them to reason and to think, and to impart that knowledge essential to a more correct acquaintance with physical truth, and a clearer conception of the varied manipulation of those arts in which consist the true interests of the country.

THE LEAD MINES OF ARKANSAS.

To Freeman Hunt, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

The object of the present paper is to give an account of the argentiferous lead mines of Arkansas, and the reasons for believing them to be worthy of attention. These

have excited considerable attention for several years past; and various, and somewhat contradictory statements and reports, have been made, from time to time, concerning them. The consequence is, that the public mind has become quite skeptical as to their character for productiveness, if not of their very existence.

The writer has spent much time in investigating them, and watching their developments, as far as it has proceeded, during the past two years; and in comparing them with other mines of a similar character elsewhere, which have been longer worked, and whose character for productiveness has been established beyond a doubt, the result is a thorough conviction that they do not fall behind those of any other part of our country in any of the essential characteristics which indicate an abundance of mineral.

When any tract of country is first discovered to contain mineral, it is always the first inquiry, both of practical miners and scientific men, what is the mode of its existence,—that is, whether it exists in regularly formed veins or lodes, or in disconnected, isolated patches.

As soon as it is ascertained that there is a regular system of veins or lodes, especially if they run nearly east and west, no one, who is either practically or scientifically acquainted with mining, has any doubt of their capacity for productiveness, whenever they are judiciously and energetically worked. There is a correspondence running throughout all the works of nature, that when certain characteristics are found, others are sure to follow, as day and night, seed-time and harvest. The farmer, in judging of the capabilities of a certain soil, does not ask to see a crop growing upon it before he will believe it capable of producing one. When he sees what he knows to be the essential characteristics of a good soil, he knows, without further evidence, that if he uses the proper degree of industry, with a genial season, the labor of his hands is sure to be rewarded.

The Creator has made the world for man—its mineral as well as its agricultural resources; and He has not placed the indications of mineral wealth before us to mock our curiosity, or to entice us into ruinous enterprises, but as guides or indexes to point us to the places of their deposit.

The principal difficulties that have hitherto attended mining operations in our country, have been from the want of sufficient capital, and of that steady and patient perseverance which is requisite, in every kind of business, to insure success. There are few examples in our country, as yet, where men have engaged in mining with the persevering energy that we witness in every other pursuit. They are too much, or too little excited—too hot, or too cold; they have the most extravagant expectations of immediate wealth, or else they are totally faithless of any success in mining enterprises.

Now, it is not reasonable, nor is it good sense, for one to expect that he is going to make his fortune in a day at mining, or in a month, or a year. But it is reasonable and according to the dictates of good sense and sound judgment, to expect that where the essential characteristics of a good mineral region exist, the patient and persevering prosecution of mining operations, guided by the aids which experience and science afford, will as certainly be productive of a satisfactory reward, as that of the farmer, the mechanic, or the manufacturer.

Nor is this all. In large operations like mining, which require much capital, as well as a rare kind of scientific and practical skill, the business is not over-done, like those pursuits which are within the reach of the generality of mankind; consequently the profits are usually much greater.

This is proved by the most abundant and reliable documents from all the principal mining countries on the globe. One of the principal sources of the overgrown wealth of England has been her mines. Whatever may be said of the fate of their operatives, their employers have grown rich almost beyond example. Mexico and South America have filled the world with silver; and yet their ores are, on an average, no richer than those of Arkansas. The only doubt is as to the quantity. But those who have seen both the Mexican and Arkansas mines, declare that the surface signs of the latter are as promising as those of the former, but the Mexicans are down from 1,000 to 1,800 feet, while we are scarcely down 100. The English obtain their lead principally from 300 to 600 feet deep. They scarcely expect to find more than enough to guide them in their course for the first 200 feet. The same is true of their copper and tin mines; the principal part of these ores are obtained from 1,500 to 1,800 feet below the surface.

Disastrous failures have sometimes occurred in mining, yet what business is there where they have not? But when we come to inquire into the causes of them, we

shall find them to be the same that they are in every other kind of business. Sometimes a failure is owing to the want of a proper knowledge of the business, and sometimes to a lack of energy and skill in its prosecution, or more likely to both of them combined. Another cause of failure in mining is the incompetency, or the untrustworthiness of the Superintendent; but the most common of all, and the one most to be dreaded, is the practice of gambling. When failures occur in mining, they are almost always attributable to some one, or all of the above causes, though the impression generally is that they are the result of some inherent difficulty or uncertainty in the business itself. But the truth is that there is no inherent uncertainty about it; when it is conducted with skill and energy, and persevering industry, it is certain to reward the outlay of labor and capital as any other business is. The difficulty, when there is any, is almost always in the ignorance, or bad management, or wickedness of the men engaged in it.

B. LAWRENCE, *Geologist.*

THE IRON TRADE OF ENGLAND.

At a meeting of the Society of Art in London, Mr. Blackwell delivered a lecture on the Iron Making Resources of the United Kingdom. The following extract of Mr. Blackwell's Lecture, which we copy from a late London Journal, will interest a portion of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

In opening his lecture Mr. Blackwell alluded to the Exhibition building itself as one, the conception and construction of which illustrated in the most striking degree the extensive iron-making resources of the country.

In glancing at the rise and progress of the iron manufactures of the country, the course pursued was to divide its history into two epochs, the first extending from the earliest historical notice existing to the period of the first introduction of fuel as an article used in smelting; and the second, bringing down its history to the present time. Many of the more extensive workings now known were, in all probability, known in the earliest periods; and it appeared certain that the mineral fields recently discovered in the county of Northampton were known and worked by the Romans. The quantity of iron manufactured in this country had proceeded rapidly in extent since 1740, until in the last year the quantity manufactured was not less than 2,500,000 tons, and the total value of all descriptions of goods was not less than £10,424,000. The great increase in this branch of industry was mainly to be attributed to the near proximity of the fuel with the ore, an advantage possessed to so great an extent by no other country, not even by the United States. The sources of supply were obtained from the two divisions, the argillaceous and carbonaceous iron-stone, and the ore was found in part composed of, or combined with, in greater or less proportions, the oxides of iron, alumina, silica, manganese, magnesia, soda, potash, crystals of nickel and znee, copper, and lead. Among recent improvements in the manufacture of iron, the most important were undoubtedly the discovery of the hot blast, and the application of the waste gases of the furnaces. Having described the varied localities where the mineral was found, it was stated that the entire area of the formations in which iron ore could be found was about 5000 square miles; but that, notwithstanding the immense quantities that were annually raised, there appeared to be every reason for believing that the iron-making coal fields of the country were not even approaching to exhaustion. Most important and valuable discoveries of extensive deposits had within the last few years been made in the north of England, at Middlesborough, which could be worked with the greatest economy; and also an extensive district in Northamptonshire, in the immediate neighbourhood of the route of the Northampton and Peterborough Railway. Ireland contained several extensive deposits of ore, but at present no iron manufactures were carried on in that country. The results of the varied improvements in the manufacture, although strongly opposed at first, and the removal of protective duties upon iron, had effected a most extraordinary reduction in the price, and one equally extraordinary in its consumption. The Museum of Practical Geology, recently established, was calculated to produce a vast amount of good by the diffusion of instruction upon subjects connected with mining and metallurgy. The number of hands employed in all branches of the iron manufacture was not less than 500,000. They were generally well paid, and, though hitherto completely neglected, were now rapidly rising to a position of equality with that of any other portion of the laboring population of the United Kingdom. It is impossible, said the lecturer, after completing an interesting survey of our iron-making resources,

not to be struck with the vast and almost inexhaustible supplies of iron which we possess, and with the wonderful fact that the extraordinary demand which railway and other requirements have produced, should have lead not to an increased price, but to the constant discovery of new and cheaper sources of supply. In this respect the iron trade illustrates most strikingly what appears to be a general law—that the natural resources of the world are invariably developed at the times when the progress of society most requires them, and when that progress is already such as to enable us to avail ourselves to the greatest advantage of new discoveries. Thus with the iron manufacture. At first the stores of fuel which our forests contained, and the iron ores which cropped out at the surface of the ground were amply sufficient for our purposes. Then came the knowledge of the power of smelting with coal; and with this knowledge, the steam-engine placed in our hands the vast stores of mineral fuel of our coal fields. The modern system of railways next produced a demand for iron of an unprecedented character; and simultaneously with this demand occurred the introduction of the hot blast and the use of the black bands in Scotland. The more intimate connection of the old and the new world by means of transatlantic steamers is followed by the discovery of Californian and Australian gold; giving to the commercial and civilized world at large an activity and a movement such as it has never before witnessed—causing streams of population to flow in unprecedented numbers from the older countries of Europe to comparatively new regions, and bidding fair to make the vast and magnificent countries of Central America and Australia the seats of great and important empires. And these populations, not isolated as the colonists of old—not struggling with long periods of poverty and slow growth, but springing up rapidly into flourishing communities—all take with them into their new homes the social wants and requirements of the older countries which they have left. Iron steamers will be required to continue their connection with those countries, and to carry on the extensive Commerce they will originate; new lines of railroad will be necessitated, not from towns to towns, but from state to state, and even from ocean to ocean. And not only in America are these mighty movements at work, but elsewhere also. In India, with its 150,000,000 of population, railroads must be laid down; the government of that country cannot be held without them; its natural resources cannot be developed without them; the rapidly extending requirements of our cotton manufacture will necessitate them; and every mile of railway that is laid down will lead to the demand for ever-increasing quantities of iron. And even in our own country the sanitary measures to which such attention is now being directed, will require an extremely large and increasing supply of iron, both for an abundant supply of water to the dense population of our manufacturing districts, and also for purposes of building, which the rapidly increasing prosperity of our working classes will no longer permit to be overlooked as in the past. If the increase during the last twenty-five years has been so great—from 600,000 tons to 2,500,000—there is every reason to expect an equal increase during the next twenty-five years, as the general requirements of society must develop themselves in an equal, if not in an accelerating ratio. And now, to supply these requirements another great source of iron is disclosed to us; to the argillaceous and black band ironstones of our coal fields, and the hæmatites of our carboniferous limestones, are added the oolitic ores, with the rich per centage of iron they contain, and the low cost at which they can be raised, and their exhaustless supplies. Can this constant progression of means—this development of one resource after another—as society requires it, be other than a wise and most beneficent arrangement, which has for its purpose the advancement of society to an even higher and higher point, and the attainment of that amity among all the nations of the earth which must ultimately prevail. Nor does it appear a less wise and beneficent arrangement that these stores of mineral wealth, so needful for the world's progress, should exist in climates temperate as our own, which has produced the strong and vigorous Anglo-Saxon race, to whom work is less a toil than a passion, and amongst whom there are so many who do not shrink to devote even their entire lives to the development and extension of some great enterprise. But if to the Anglo-Saxon race has been given so large a proportion of the mineral riches of the world, it must not be forgotten that equal to the power thus committed to their care is the responsibility thereto attached, and they must of necessity be the guiders and the promoters of the advancing civilization of the present; seeing that the very basis of that civilization is to be found in the increased and increasing power to adapt to the requirements of society the great physical resources of the world, and that the science and the skill of the present day would be comparatively powerless but for the stores of iron and coal by which that science and that skill can be rendered available.

The steam-engine, the railroad, and the telegraph, the characteristic features of the present day, are indeed preparing a quiet revolution for the world. Breaking down class interests, and substituting universal interests in their place, they are fast uniting in one bond of unity the entire human race, and are leading rapidly, to use the words of His Royal Highness Prince Albert, "to the accomplishment of that end to which indeed all history points, the realization of the unity of mankind." For ourselves it should not be sufficient that in the hands of a higher power than our own we are unconsciously working out the designs of Providence, but we should strive to discern the coming changes which are arising around us, that thus conscious whereunto our work is tending, we may be enabled to place ourselves in harmony therewith. That we have earnest workers amongst us, men working with noble aims, with no party, or merely national spirit, but in the great cause of humanity itself, the Exhibition of 1851 has clearly shown. May its promoters long be remembered with honor, and may the important benefits which it already appears to have conferred upon all our principal trades, be productive of the results for which its promoters so nobly worked.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

COMMERCIAL DIRECTORIES.

One of the first effects of Trade and Commerce upon society is to collect large numbers of mankind within small districts of country; in other words, it causes large cities, with all their bustle and activity, and crowded streets and dwellings, rapidly to to spring into existence. The necessity of a guide, or directory, to the place of business or residence of each individual is thus early felt. The first directory of New York was published more than fifty years ago. It was a small two-by-three-inch book, with a paper cover, and contained a few hundred names only. Since that period, the population has doubled itself several times, and the New York Directory has become a volume of several hundred pages, and contains about one hundred thousand names.

The directory of Messrs. Wilson & Trow* for the city of New York, which has lately been published, consists of seven hundred and thirty-one pages. It was compiled during the month of May, or in the twenty-six working days which succeeded May 1st, and printed and bound. It is in advance of former years by nearly three weeks. But this unusual enterprise was doubtless greatly stimulated by competition. The fact that Wilson and Trow were the competitors gave immense impetus to their efforts. The work which is first out, and which is the most accurate, full, and complete, is invariably the successful one.

This year both publishers issued their works on or about the same day. But the work of Wilson & Trow contains twenty-five thousand names more than any former directory, while the rival directory contains a few thousand less names than some of the previous directories. It is this fact which has given to the feat of these publishers its eclat.

We have examined some parts of this work with considerable care. The number of lines of names on each page is 180. If we suppose each line to contain a name, then this work contains 122,000 names. But each line does not in all cases contain a name. The aim is to state in each the name of the individual, his place of business, and his family residence. Of course, in many cases these statements are too long to come within the compass of a line. There will average on each page from fifteen to thirty

* Wilson & Trow's New York City Directory, 8vo., pp. 673. Appendix, 8vo., pp. 44. Wilson's Street and Avenue Directory, 8vo., pp. 14. New York: John F. Trow.

instances of this kind. If we suppose the number for each page to be twenty, and deduct accordingly from the volume, it will be found to contain 106,500 names.

The population of the city somewhat exceeds 500,000. This work, therefore, contains about one name out of five of the whole population. Six persons are generally considered as the average for families at large. In localities it may vary somewhat. Females and children, and young persons not in business, and transitory individuals, compose that portion of the population whose names are not found in a directory. It is just, therefore, to conclude that the canvass for names on this work must have been very faithfully and thoroughly done. That it has not been so done in former years, is now manifest by the larger number of names which this directory contains over every other.

It would not be possible to estimate the names of mercantile firms, nor be worth the labor. The favorite name of Smith occupies eight pages, and Smith, John, nearly a page of double columns, while Michael, Patrick, James, Philip, Thomas, and William Smith, each occupy a large portion of a column.

There is Stevens and Stevenson, Stephens and Stephenson, Stephan and Stephani, and Stevins and Stephen, which are an example of the variations of an original word.

The Mcs are an immense family of prefixes. They occupy twenty-three pages of the volume. McCarthy and McCarty are the most numerous branch, although they are run hard by the McGraths, McGuires, McGowans, McDonnells, and McCormicks.

We have examined this work for correctness, within the range of our observation, and find it very accurate and reliable.

It is printed in a very handsome style, and is perhaps the most tasteful and finished directory in its appearance that was ever issued in the city of New York, as it is in the completeness, fullness, and accuracy of its contents.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

The thirty-second annual report of this association exhibits its affairs in a most prosperous and flourishing condition. Its means of usefulness have been progressive, and its future prospects are regarded at this time as more brilliant than at any former period of its foundation. The additions made to the library during the year just closed, by purchase, have been 2,285; by donation, 161, and by binding of magazines and reviews, received and paid for during the year, 67—in all, 2,513, which, added to the number of volumes on the catalogue, per annual report of the previous year, (8,938,) makes the present number of volumes in the library of the association 11,451. The expenditures for books, magazines and reviews, and binding during the year, amounted to $2,294 23, being an increase over the amount expended during the previous year for the same purposes of $986 86. The following table shows the increase of the members of the institution for the last three years—years ending 1st of April:

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Number of renewals of subscription.....	611	853	1,069
Number of new subscriptions.....	987	945	1,254
Total.....	1,598	1,798	2,322

By the Treasurer's report it appears the whole amount of receipts for the year ending April 1st, 1852, were $7,541 77, to which is to be added a balance received from the administration of 1850-51 of $452 58, making a total of $7,885 94. The expenditures during the year amounted to $6,865 94, besides which the association made an investment of $1,500, leaving a balance in the Treasury of $108 64. The institution is entirely free from pecuniary incumbrance, and has invested funds to the

amount of $17,600. Two courses of lectures were given, under the auspices of the association, during the past season, which, after paying lecturers and all expenses, produced net proceeds amounting to $1,487. The Lecture Committee, in their report, mention with gratitude the kindness of that highly-accomplished merchant and educated gentleman, GEORGE R. RUSSELL, LL. D., who declined the pecuniary consideration tendered him for his lecture, and requested that the money should be invested in books for the library. The weekly exercises for debate, declamation, and composition, have, it appears from the report, been well attended during the past year. The benefit derived from a participation in these exercises can hardly be over-estimated by the members. The arrangements of the association for classes in bookkeeping, penmanship, and languages, are well calculated to promote a very beneficial object, employing the best teachers in the several branches. Among the teachers in bookkeeping and penmanship we notice the name of our accomplished friend, GEORGE N. COMER, Esq. The rooms of the association are regarded as quite inadequate to its wants, and the erection of a building suitable for its use has from time to time engrossed the attention of its officers. The invested funds ($17,600) will undoubtedly soon be appropriated for the erection of a building.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

GEORGE N. COMER, of Boston, a thoroughly accomplished teacher of bookkeeping, penmanship, and other branches of commercial education, has recently published a new writing-book, containing a series of exercises for acquiring a beautiful, and what in our estimation is of more practical value, a clear and distinct handwriting. "The size of this book, (a copy of which is before us,) that of a letter-sheet, presents a practical advantage hitherto overlooked. The copies, being in a free, natural hand, and upon separate slips, precludes the necessity of dampening the paper to print upon, which renders it soft, fuzzy, and unfit for writing;—any number of pages of any one of the copies may be repeated at convenience." Mr. Comer brings to his task in teaching, (if that can be called a task with one who seems to enter the pursuit with an almost enthusiastic devotion to it,) genius, talent, and experience, that would command fame and fortune in almost any other walk in life. Mr. Comer has appended to his writing-book some directions to teachers and pupils, forming a clear and comprehensive lecture upon the principles of penmanship, so that the book becomes, as it were, a most useful teacher. To young men just entering mercantile life, we would say, if your location or circumstances prevent you from availing yourselves of Mr. Comer's "Initiatory Counting-Rooms," procure the various works of that gentleman on bookkeeping and penmanship, and make them your study.

THE LONDON BOOKSELLING SYSTEM.

A deputation from the Booksellers' Association recently attended at Strathedenhouse, Kensington, the residence of Lord Campbell, to hear the decision of his lordship, Dr. Milman, and Mr. George Grote, on the question of "underselling" in the bookselling trade. Lord Campbell, in pronouncing the decision of the arbitrators, said:—"The substance of the regulations submitted to us, we understand to be, that all booksellers keeping a shop in London, or within twelve miles of the General Post-Office, are to become members of the association, and are to receive a ticket entitling them to buy new books from the publishers; that the publishers of new books specify a retail price for each copy; that they sell copies to the retail booksellers at about 30 per cent under that price; that they require an engagement from the retail booksel-

lers not to allow to their customers a larger discount than 10 per cent from the retail price; that, without this engagement, the retail dealers cannot be supplied with copies of new books; and that for a breach of this engagement they forfeit their tickets, and are cut off from any further dealings in new books with the publishers. Having listened to very able arguments, having read everything which has come within our reach on either side, and having considered the subject very deliberately, we have unanimously come to the conclusion that these regulations are unreasonable and inexpedient." His lordship then stated at considerable length the grounds of the opinion at which they had arrived. Mr. Longman and Mr. Chapman, on behalf of the two parties for whom they acted, severally thanked the noble lord and his co-arbiters for the time and attention they had devoted to the subject.

THE CINNAMON OF COMMERCE.

The cinnamon of Commerce is the inner bark of a tree closely resembling the laurel, or sweet bay, a native originally of Ceylon, but which is now grown in the other parts of the East Indies, and also in Jamaica and other West India Islands. The trees are usually left to grow unmolested until they are nine years old, at which time the young shoots or branches, that are about three years old, are lopped off. The bark is then slit on one side and removed from the branch, tied up in bundles until the next day, when it is loosened, and the skin or outer bark scraped off. It is then dried or rolled up into quills or pipes, about three feet long, which have a slit down one side where the bark was cut. The smallest quills are rolled up inside the larger; the whole are then tied up in bundles of 80 or 90 lbs. weight, and wrapped up in cloths, when they are ready for exportation. It is an astringent and highly aromatic and warm flavor, and yields by distillation an extremely fragrant and pungent volatile oil, kept for pharmaceutical use under the name of *oil of cinnamon.*

ADULTERATION OF COFFEE IN PARIS.

A Paris correspondent of the *National Intelligencer* says that a manufactory of paste-coffee has just been pounced upon by the police, that would do no discredit to the inventors of the wooden nutmegs, that gave so equivocal a fame to a certain portion of our own countrymen. It is chiefly for their benefit, and to prove to the world that Yankees do not enjoy the monopoly of dishonest ingenuity in this line which is generally attributed to them, that I note the commencement of the manufacture of coffee in Paris. Here is the process:—

A paste is prepared of about the consistency of dough for bread, and perhaps of the same materials, only of adulterated or valueless flour. This paste or dough is, by means of molds skillfully prepared, made to assume the shape of grains of coffee, whether of Mocha, or Bourbon, or Martinique, to suit the taste of buyers. The artificial grain is then baked till it takes the color of parched coffee. It is then mixed in proper proportions with genuine parched coffee, and retailed as such, with great profit, in the grocery stores. The practice, very general in France, of buying from the grocers, coffee ready parched, facilitates this mode of falsification, otherwise impossible.

OUR COMMERCE WITH BRAZIL AND THE AMAZON.

Lieut. Maury proposes, in a Memorial to Congress, that a line of steam communication be opened between some southern Atlantic port and the port of Para, in Brazil. Para is a port of considerable importance even now, and, situated at the outlet of the Amazon, would soon command a lucrative trade. A direct communication between it and some central port like Norfolk, already in close connection with New York, would save our merchants the labor and expense of transmission by way of England to Rio Janeiro,—a practice too commonly adopted, because of the length of

time consumed in sailing a voyage hence to Rio. Our commerce with Brazil is already greater than with any other country except England and France. Her imports from the United States, in 1835, amounted to $2,608,656, and since that period they have annually increased. Our exports thither in 1850–51 were $3,752,916, and the imports hither were $11,525,304. It is needless to argue the importance of keeping up a steady increase in this reciprocal system of exports and imports. Brazil produces sugar, coffee, chocolate, salt, nitrate of potash, gold, diamonds, topaz, beryl, tourmaline, amethysts, and precious commodities almost innumerable. Her agriculture is not perfect. It needs the incitements of commerce and internal facilities; with an open line of communication from the Amazon to the Coast, emigration must pour in, and the resources of the country be developed in all their richness. The cattle trade of the region is a peculiar feature of its natural advantages. Ores of iron and copper, laid idle for years, must start into circulation, and employ the minds and hands of working, energetic men. The spice trade, the traffic in fruits, exportation of animals, all proffer opportunities of profit, waiting the turn of the tide to become productive. Viewing the question in these lights, the importance of the contemplated enterprise becomes so plainly manifest that it can scarcely fail to take the attention and invite the scrutiny of the commercial public.

HIGH PRICES OF MARKETING.

The *Providence Journal* alluding to the general complaints of the ruinous and increasing prices of marketing, remarks that there is something not right about the present system. The consumer pays enormous prices, and the producer gets but a moderate return. There are too many interests between the farmer and the people who buy his meats and vegetables. With the steam communication extending westward, with the low fares, the easy transportation, and the wonderful cheapness of agricultural productions, only two or three days' journey from us, there should not be such high prices of all that supplies the table. It is a subject worthy of serious consideration. The high prices which press upon men of moderate means, cut off the poorer classes from many kinds of wholesome food, and deprive them of many of the comforts of life. Something should be done to bring the producer and the consumer nearer together.

A BUSINESS PICTURE OF CINCINNATI.

A new paper, the *Sun*, just started in Cincinnati, gives the following picture of the business of that city:—

Here, on the landing—lying side by side—are steamboats which have come from Pennsylvania, Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, Indiana, Tennessee, Iowa, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Old States and new States—slave States and free States—Northern States and Southern States—are all here, lying quietly together, in the friendly embraces of Commerce. But, look again: from what countries came these cargoes of merchandise and produce? Is it not one and the same country? Here are the products of the Alleghanies—the grain of Ohio—the salt of Virginia—the tobacco of Kentucky—the lead of Missouri—the iron of Tennessee—the cotton of Mississippi and Arkansas—the sugar and molasses of Louisiana, and the rice of the Carolinas! And what are there returned for them? Bacon for the Negroes—sugar-mills for the planter—bread for the manufacturers—oil and lard for all countries. Can the most active imagination conceive of more elements of consolidation in national interests, and of fervent patriotism in a people?

A MAHOMEDAN'S IDEA OF A CHRISTIAN MERCHANT.

Some years ago a Philadelphia merchant sent a cargo of goods to Constantinople. After the supercargo saw the bales and boxes safely landed, he inquired where they could be stored.

"Leave them here, it won't rain to-night," was the reply.

"But I dare not leave them thus exposed; some of the goods might be stolen," said the supercargo.

The Mahomedan merchant burst into a loud laugh, as he replied—

"Don't be alarmed, there ain't a Christian within fifty miles of here."

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Pronouncing Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages. Composed from the Spanish Dictionaries of the Spanish Academy, Terreros, Salva, upon the Basis of Seoane's Edition of Newman and Barretti, and from the English Dictionaries of Webster, Worcester, and Walker, with the Addition of more than Eight Thousand Words, Idioms and Familiar Phrases, irregularities of the verbs, and a Grammatical Synopsis of both Languages.* By M. VELAZQUEZ DE LA CARDENA, Prof. Columbia College. Royal 8vo. pp. 1,300. New York: D. Appleton Co.

Of all the dictionaries of the Spanish and English languages heretofore within the reach of the public, none have approached the completeness and perfection of this great work. It is prepared upon the basis of the most approved and successful of the works which have preceded it, but from every other, additions and improvements have been drawn; including also, the advantage of the author's long and familiar knowledge of his mother tongue and the large works of eminent scholars of the Spanish Academy. Many familiar words, not found in the dictionaries, but constantly in use in Cuba, in Mexico, and in South America, are now first given, as well as a long catalogue of terms used in the arts, in chemistry, botany, medicine, natural history, and mercantile terms and phrases. The pronunciation of the Spanish is so clearly set forth as to render it well-nigh impossible for any person who can read English readily, to fail of obtaining the true sound of the Spanish at sight. It contains likewise an "Outline Grammar of the Spanish," and a "Grammatical synopsis of the English Language," each having a grammar in miniature and all the irregular verbs of both languages. The method for the pronunciation of the English is worthy of the attention of every one to whom the Spanish is the mother tongue. It is based upon the method so much admired by Don Lorenzo Hervas, of giving to every elementary sound in the language, a corresponding alphabetical character instead of notation with figured vowels. The work is issued in a fine and substantial form, for which the publishers deserve high praise.

2.—*Second Series of Voyages to Various Parts of the World, made between the Years* 1802 *and* 1841. By GEORGE COGGESHALL. Selected from his MS. Journal of eighty voyages. 8vo., pp. 335. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Few men have made more voyages to sea within the same period than the author of this volume. These have been to all parts of the world, and many of them during years of danger from foreign foes. The author in this second series, has selected some of the most striking and marvelous scenes of his life. These are narrated in a simple, plain style, and will interest the reader by the striking facts and occurrences presented. Perhaps there is no other work from which the nature of our commercial service may be so well understood as from these graphic pages.

3.—*The Days of Bruce. A Story from Scottish History.* By GRACE AGUILAR. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 355 and 229. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a tale of unusual power and eloquence. Its author was a youthful, but very accomplished woman; and her delineations of the female character, especially in its high and noble traits, are equalled by few writers. In this tale the scene is laid in Scotland, and at a romantic period of its history, to serve rather as a wide field for the exercise of her talents. Its sentiments are excellent and its scenes abounding in stirring interest; while many of its characters possess such charming traits as to enlist all the sympathies of the reader.

4.—*A Step from the New World to the Old and Back again, with Thoughts on the Good and Evil in both.* By HENRY P. TAPPAN. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 304 and 304. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

These very agreeable volumes consist of a trip through parts of England, Scotland, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, France, and up the Rhine. The author presents us with his impressions in a natural and unaffected manner. He describes, in an animated and interesting style, the objects which attracted his attention, and although so much has been written upon Europe of late, the contents of these pages are fresh and new, and display a cultivation of style and thought which is unusual.

5.—*The Paris Sketch Book.* By W. M. THACKERAY. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 227 and 238. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Number six of Appleton's Library consists of the "Paris Sketch Book," by the inimitable Thackeray. It is certainly a most agreeable book, and one of the choicest of this series of rare and desirable works. It is in the same good taste and attractive style with all the others, which renders this one of the best collections of entertaining and instructive works within the reach of the public.

6.—*Romance of Natural History; or, Wild Scenes and Wild Hunters.* By C. W WEBBER. 8vo., pp. 610. Philadelphia: Lippincott Grambo & Co.

The Wild Hunters of the world embrace many very conspicuous characters, and the scenes through which they have passed are some of the most thrilling that man has witnessed. In these pages the author presents what may truly be called the romance of hunting. He has endeavored to trace the passions of the hunter-naturalist through their gradual development up to the stern and strong individualities of such men as Audubon, Wilson, Boone, &c., and has, therefore, sought to present him in plain unvarnished guise, amidst wild scenes of primitive nature. In a narrative form containing many personal reminiscences of the author, there is presented in these pages the sober facts of Natural History, the wild adventures of the hunter, and the vigorous and spirited thought of a dashing and brilliant writer.

7.—*History of Kentucky. From its Earliest Settlement to the Present Time.* By T. S. ARTHUR and W. S. CARPENTER. 12mo., pp. 316. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

These three volumes are the first of a series entitled "Lippincott's Cabinet Histories," of all the States of the Union. They are to be prepared with care and accuracy by intelligent and accomplished writers, and written in a popular style, suited to libraries and extensive family reading. We welcome this enterprise as one entitled to the approbation of the public, and feel confident from the volumes before us, that the series must give entire satisfaction to the mass of readers.

8.—*History of Virginia. From its Earliest Settlement to the Present Time.* By T. S. ARTHUR and W. S. CARPENTER. 12mo., pp. 330.

9.—*History of Georgia. From its Earliest Settlement to the Present Time.* By T. S. ARTHUR and W. S. CARPENTER. 12mo., pp. 315.

10.—*The Waverly Novels.* By Sir WALTER SCOTT. Complete in twelve volumes. Printed from the latest English editions, embracing the author's last corrections, prefaces, and notes. Vol. 1. Waverly and Guy Mannering. Vol. 2. The Antiquary and Black Dwarf. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

Scott's works could not be desired for general readers in better style than they are offered in this edition for twelve dollars. It is the last edition revised and corrected by the author. Indeed it is a reprint of the famous Abbotsford edition, the most splendid and superb which was ever issued.

11.—*Roughing it in the Bush.* By MRS. MOODIE. In two parts. 12mo., pp. 210 and 224. New York: G. P. Putnam.

Putnam's Semi-Monthly Library of which these volumes form numbers twelve and thirteen, still maintains its high reputation as an agreeable series of choice and cheap works. In these pages before us, the authoress describes her experience as an emigrant in the back regions of Canada. They are quite interesting and present a very striking picture of the hardships and trials of emigrants to a new country. Her lot was severe, truly roughing it in the bush, and her fortitude as well as talent at composition are worthy of commendation.

12.—*The Solar System: a Descriptive Treatise upon the Sun, Moon, and Planets, Including an Account of all the Recent Discoveries.* By J. RUSSELL HIND, of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich. 12mo. New York: G. P. Putnam.

A series of popular treatises on practical science is a new enterprise. Such is the one of which this volume is the first issue. It is similar in plan to Putnam's Semi-Monthly Library, but consists of treatises on important and useful subjects. We wish this enterprise success, for if the other volumes of the series are as excellent as this they will place within the reach of the public a vast amount of scientific and practical knowledge at a low price.

13.—*Dollars and Cents.* By AMY LATHROP. 2 Vols., 12mo., pp. 266 and 245. New York: G. P. Putnam.

This is a story of domestic scenes written with much ease and neatness of style, and abounding in striking scenes and incidents. The reader will find in these pages much to please and interest him.

14.—*Up the Rhine.* By THOMAS HOOD. With comic illustrations. First and Second Parts. 12mo. pp. 168 and 173. New York: G. P. Putnam.

These volumes form the ninth, tenth, and eleventh numbers of Putnam's Semi-Monthly Library. Their selection is marked by the same excellent taste, entertaining humor, and lively spirit which are so conspicuous in former numbers. Their price is so cheap that they should meet with a universal circulation.

15.—*The Poetical Works of Louis Napoleon, now first Translated into English.* By BON GUALTIER. 12mo., pp. 91. New York: G. P. Putnam.

These are poems such as the author presumes Louis Napoleon would write. Some of them contain quite pleasant points or hits, and are done with considerable cleverness.

16.—*Gems of Female Biography.* Compiled by Rev. DANIEL SMITH. Vol. 1. 16mo., pp. 430. New York: Lane & Scott.

For the parlor, the fireside, and the closet, this volume is designed to serve as an agreeable and instructive companion. It is more especially prepared for young ladies of intellect, education, and refinement, who are annually entering on the active and responsible duties of life. Among the number of women of high character, whose biographies are presented, are, Lady Jane Grey, Catherine Parr Countess of Warwick, Elizabeth Barret, Elizabeth Howe, Lucy Hutchinson, Ann Bacon, &c., &c. Although a compilation, those incidents of the private history of these individuals are selected which serve more clearly to delineate their true and noble characters.

17.—*Christianity Tested by Eminent Men: Being Brief Sketches of Christian Biography.* By MERRITT CALDWELL, A. M. With an introduction by Rev. S. M. VAIL. 18mo., pp. 218. New York: Lane & Scott.

These sketches are very brief. In some instances they are scarcely more than anecdotes; but each presents a striking point in the Christian character of the respective individual.

18.—*A Harmony and Exposition of the Christian Scriptures. Part* 1. *The Gospels.* By JAMES STRONG, A. M. 8vo., pp. 450. New York: Lane & Scott.

In this work the narratives of the four Gospels are arranged on such a plan as to furnish a consecutive account of every event by the selection of leading texts. The different narratives are also given in parallel columns, to enable those who wish to make a comparison. In connection with this, there is a commentary, somewhat general and loose in style, and consisting chiefly of a paraphrase of the language of the original. The work is embellished with numerous plates, and accompanied with several dissertations on the localities of ancient Jerusalem, and on the time of the appearance of the Saviour. It is issued in a firm and substantial style.

19.—*Lectures to Young Men on their Dangers, Safeguards, and Responsibilities.* By Rev. DANIEL SMITH. 18mo., pp. 247. New York: Lane & Scott.

These lectures are quite general in their character, and touch only upon a few points of importance to young men. Their moral sentiments are well suited to elevate the mind of youth, and to aid in the formation of a true manly character.

20.—*The Widow's Souvenir; a Gift-Book for Widows.* By A. C. KOSE. 24mo., pp. 128. New York: Lane & Scott.

Christian consolation to the widow is the theme of this little work; the selections are in good taste generally, and suited to console the griefs of the bereaved.

21.—*Pequinillo. A Tale.* By G. P. R. JAMES. 8vo., pp. 132. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This tale is published in Harpers' Library of Select Novels. It is written in an agreeable and pleasant style, with frequent touches of sarcasm, and contains many striking passages.

22.—*The Life and Works of Robert Burns.* Edited by ROBERT CHAMBERS. In four volumes. Vol. 2. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The second volume includes in its scope the life and writings of Burns, from November, 1786, to December, 1791. The blending of the life and productions together in this edition, is a feature that imparts to it more than an ordinary interest. It is, in our judgment, the most desirable as well as the most full and complete edition of Burns that has been given to the public.

23.—*Overing: or, the Heir of Wycherly. A Historical Romance.* By ELDRED GRAYSON, Esq., author of "Standish, the Puritan," &c. 12mo., pp. 416. New York: Cornish & Lamport.

This romance appears to be founded on the life and character of an individual, the younger brother of John de Courcy, Earl of Ulster, who, as we learn from the files of the old "*Mercury*," emigrated to America, and settled in Newport, R. I., where he came with small means of support, &c. His history, we are told by the author, seems to have been transmitted to the inhabitants of Rhode Island with much oral faithfulness, inasmuch as they all appear to agree in its details. The author has, however, made this character the medium to exhibit the peculiarities of the age and people, when and among whom the individuals commemorated flourished, rather than a sober history. It is highly interesting as a romance, and is rather in a beautiful and attractive style. Cornish and Lamport give evidence of a taste and liberality in the style in which this, and, indeed, all their publications are now produced—not surpassed by the Appletons' or Putnam's.

24.—*Summerfield; or, Life on a Farm.* By DAY K. LEE. 12mo. pp. Auburn: Derby & Miller.

A pleasant tale, designed to illustrate the pure and quiet scenes of rural life. It is written with much smoothness and ease, and with good taste and elevation of feeling, and must prove very extensively acceptable.

25.—*A Peep at "Number Five:" or A Chapter in the Life of a Country Pastor.* By H. TRUSTA, author of "Sunny Side." 18mo., pp. 296. Boston: Phillips, Samson & Co.

Few of the little tales of the present day have been better received than "Sunny Side," by the same author. The present volume is a work of the same stamp. It contains many of those pleasant and delightful scenes which deeply interest the reader, while its tone is excellent.

26.—*The Classical Manual; an Epitome of Ancient Geography, Greek and Roman Mythology, Antiquities, and Chronology; chiefly intended for the use of Schools.* Compiled by J. S. S. BAIRD. 12mo., pp. 200. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

Few works on this subject are so well prepared as this. The more advanced scholar will find it very useful to refresh his memory.

27.—*Eleven Weeks in Europe; and what may be Seen in that time.* By JAMES FREEMAN CLARKE. 12mo. pp. 328. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

In eleven weeks the author of these charming letters visited England, France, Switzerland, and Belgium, and spent one week on the Rhine. The letters are quite agreeable to read, because the writer is a very companionable man, observing, intelligent, and of cultivated taste and feelings. We have seldom seen a book of travels in which it was so pleasant to ramble with the author.

28.—*Outlines of English Literature.* By THOMAS B. SHAW. A new American Edition, with a Sketch of American Literature. BY HENRY T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 487. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The author of this volume was a professor of English literature in the University of St. Petersburg, and for the purpose of aiding his pupils in a general knowledge of the subject this manual was prepared. It is nevertheless a work of value and character. Its criticisms are discriminating and just. They are well written, and convey perhaps a better general knowledge of the English literature than any work of the same size. The essay by Tuckerman is also quite comprehensive.

29.—*The Twelve Months' Volunteer: or, Journal of a Private, in the Tennessee Regiment of Cavalry, in the Campaign of Mexico,* 1846–7, *Including a History of the War with Mexico, embellished with Correct Engravings, from Drawings by the Author.* By GEORGE FURBUR. 8vo., pp. 687. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

A general outline of the contents of this work comprises a soldier's life in camp, his amusements, duties, and hardships; a description of Texas and Mexico; the manners, customs, and religious ceremonies of the Mexicans, and the operations of all the twelve months' volunteers. It is written with considerable variety of style, but generally in that thoughtful and reflective manner which indicates a mind completely master of the subject; and it abounds in anecdotes and striking incidents which will beguile the attention of the reader and please him as he advances, although the subject of the volume is somewhat out of date.

30.—*Chambers' Pocket Miscellany.* Volume I. 12mo., pp. 180. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This is one of the class of cheap and readable books which are now so extensively offered to the public. It will be found quite entertaining.

31.—*Historical Sketches of Kentucky: Embracing its History, Antiquities, and Natural Curiosities, Geographical, Statistical, and Geological Descriptions, with Anecdotes of Pioneer Life, and more than One Hundred Biographical Sketches of Distinguished Pioneers, Soldiers, Statesmen, Jurists, Lawyers, Divines, &c. Illustrated by Forty Engravings.* By LEWIS COLLINS. 8vo., pp. 560. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

As a general history of men, localities, and occurrences in Kentucky, in a word, as a sketch of those events which hardly find a place in an elevated historical work, but which are the true expression of human life, this volume will be found quite interesting and instructive. A more intimate knowledge can be obtained of this wealthy and chivalrous State from its pages than from almost any other work, or series of works. It is prepared in a plain and familiar style, and should be owned at least by all the sons of Kentucky.

32.—*Judge Haliburton's Yankee Stories. With Illustrations.* 12mo,, pp. 192. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston.

This volume possesses the merit of being the best delineation of the Yankee character which has been offered to the public. It abounds in quaintness and humor, and will afford the reader great amusement.

33.—*The Cavaliers of England; or, the Times of the Revolutions of* 1642 *and* 1688. By WM. H. HERBERT. 12mo., pp. 428. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The tales in these pages are written with much spirit and attractiveness. As illustrations of the times and spirit of the age of the Cavaliers, they are interesting and valuable.

34.—*Bronchitis and Kindred Diseases, in Language adapted to Common Readers.* By W. W. HALL, M. D. 12mo., pp. 348. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This is a work for all readers. It treats the subject of consumption with much science, yet in so clear and simple a manner as to be easily apprehended by any one, although unacquainted with medical terms.

35.—*The Two Fathers. An Unpublished Original Spanish Work.* By ADADUS CALPE. Translated into the English by the author and HENRY EDGAR. Part 1st. The Ruins of the Paraclete. 12mo., pp. 203. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

This is one of those works which have little claim to the public attention. Its unnatural fancies, and exaggerated conceptions are calculated only to disgust the reader.

36.—*The Spae-Wife; or, the Queen's Secret. A Story of the Times of Queen Elizabeth.* By PAUL PEPPERGRASS, Esq. Part 2. Baltimore: John Murphy.

Quite an interesting and brilliant tale.

37.—*The Poetical Work of Fitz-Green Halleck.* New Edition. 12mo., pp. 282. New York: J. S. Redfield.

All of Halleck's poems will be found in this volume, with the addition of parts of a poem which has not been published. It is issued in good style, and adapted to an extensive circulation. Of the merits of these poems it is unnecessary for us to speak. No one who has ever read "Marco Bozzaris," or "Green be the Turf above Thee," can fail to appreciate Halleck.

38.—*The Practical Model Calculator, for the Engineer, Mechanic, Machinist, Manufacturer of Engine-work, Naval Architect, Miner, and Millwright.* By OLIVER BYRNE. 8vo., pp. 591. Philadelphia: Henry C. Baird.

The title of this work is very appropriate. It designates its character. Its contents embrace every class of calculations which become the subject of investigation with scientific men in the various pursuits above mentioned. The method of these calculations is very clear and simple; such as to render them very convenient to the experienced man, and useful also to the novice and student.

39.—*Pynnshurst: His Wanderings and Ways of Thinking.* By DONALD MACLEOD. 12mo., pp. 431. New York: Charles Scribner.

Few writers can compose a volume of this size which shall contain so much that is agreeable and excellent. The author writes with a smooth and polished pen; and although there are occasionally appearances of labor in his pages, the general flow of his thoughts is natural, easy, and graceful. There are many passages of power and force, which intervene like flashes of lightning in an otherwise serene sky. The work is entitled to a place among the most agreeable books of the season.

40.—*Physical Theory of Another Life.* By ISAAC TAYLOR. 12mo., pp. 270. New York: William Gowans.

A new edition of the works of this able writer has long been needed, and we are gratified to see the publication of them undertaken in the handsome style which this volume presents. The "Physical Theory of Another Life" is one of the series which has been extensively read, and secured for the author much of his present reputation. It is a treatise which will interest all thoughtful minds.

41.—*The Art-Journal for July.* New York: George Virtue.

This number is embellished with an engraving of the "Prince of Orange landing at Torbay," "The Bagpiper," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery, and the "Son of Niobe," from the group by J. Leeb. There are, in addition, numerous cuts executed with much taste and elegance.

42.—*The Progress of Freedom, and other Poems.* By BERNARD SHIPP. 12mo., pp. 219. New York: Adriance, Sherman & Co.

The leading poem in this collection covers some fifty pages. It has in it "thoughts that breathe and words that burn." The shorter poems, moral, religious, and sentimental, are generally truthful in sentiment, and easy and graceful in versification.

43.—*Meyer's Universum; or, Views of the most Remarkable Places and Objects of all Countries, in Steel Engravings by Distinguished Artists. With Descriptive and Historical Text, by Eminent Writers in Europe and America.* Edited by CHARLES A. DANA. Vol. 1, part 1. New York: Hermann J. Meyer.

The first part of this work contains four engravings on steel, embracing views of Niagara Falls, the Tower of London, Heidelburg, and Fingal's Cave in Ireland, accompanied with appropriate letter-press illustrations, historical and descriptive. The name of Charles A. Dana, Esq., the editor, is a sufficient guaranty for the scholarly and accurate execution of the literary department of this work.

44.—*Arthur and his Mother; or, the Child of the Church. A Book for Children.* By CHARLES B. TAYLOR, M. A. 18mo., pp. 186. New York: Stanford & Swords.

An excellent little work for youthful readers.

HUNT'S

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BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1852.

Art. I.—OUR EMPIRE ON THE PACIFIC.*

SINCE California first acquired auriferous fame, a great ink-stream, worthy of an age of cheap literature and speedy transit, has flowed thence upon us, deluging the columns of our public journals, and surfeiting the public inquiry with the load of *information*. Yet has this big current borne a very meager freightage of *facts*—of such true, solid, common-sense descriptions of matters and things at its source, as were wanted here, and as could alone guide to intelligent action on the part of both our people and government. In the first period of the Californian emigration, we could hardly expect it to be otherwise. In the entire novelty of the enterprise, and the exaggerated excitement attending it at every step, we were to expect of human nature precisely what we had—an unfailing rush of words, conveying an overwhelming paucity of facts and substance. We were not to wonder that well-meaning men set forth such vague and contradictory statements respecting the sources of this fresh segment of our empire; or that in attempting to picture its condition and its prospects they were swamped in the depths of their own speculations, or fell confounded in the void between an old and a new community.

In what may be called the second period of Californian emigration—now in progress—there has been a small proportion of such ill-qualified adventurers as were the first to start—men whose flickering temperaments prevent any steady, reasoning view—their ideas ever varying with the elevation of over-realized hopes, or the depression of uncompensated fatigues and

* A Dissertation on the Resources and Policy of California: Mineral, Agricultural, and Commercial; including a Plan for the Disposal of the Mineral Lands. By JOHN J. WEETH. Benicia, California: St. Clair & Pinkham.

collapsed expectations. But the great mass of this late emigration has been of a better material—of men characterized by forethought, judgment, and cool appreciation of this enterprise. The more sober and truthful accounts sent back by these have, of course, corrected many of the errors of the earlier impressions made in the Atlantic section. But still there is a great deal of ignorance and misinformation prevailing; and while there are but few at present who do not acknowledge that California is destined to acquire an importance second to that of perhaps no other section of the country, there are as few who understand the real character of that region, and have found any tolerable measurement of the elements, upon the development of which the common opinion regarding this destiny is predicated. The effect of this ignorance has been in various ways highly detrimental to the interests of California, and no more just complaint has been made than that regarding the prejudice which these interests have sustained from the misconceptions existing in the government of the United States. From the policy —if there may be said to have been any—prevailing at Washington, not only have the ordinary concerns of California suffered, but she has been imperiled in matters of grave moment. Now, this should not be so, for two reasons—first, justice to California, which is a sort of abstraction; second, justice to ourselves, as we cannot *afford* that it should be so, which is a very practical idea, as soon as realized. We can be indifferent to the fate of California, or ignorant of her condition and wants, only at our own immediate and troublesome expense. So fixed and intimate has the union with her now become, that no section or State can "remain unaffected by any contingency that shall impede her improvement, or fail to sympathize in any impetus given to her prosperity. Nor can any institution, financial or industrial, public or private, escape the vibrations which a fluctuating ebb and flow of her golden fountains would produce."

Mr. Werth, a resident of California, has made the best effort of any that has yet come beneath our notice to furnish that information which is so much in need. His pages give evidence of careful and thorough investigation. The author is a man of practical intellect—one who sees facts in their true light and natural dimensions, understands their relations, and follows them to their legitimate results. With flighty speculations, moonshine, and shadows of meat in the water, he has nothing to do. Such as the "sober, ungarnished truth" here displayed may induce to emigrate to California, will not be likely to carry with them any of that orientalism of fancy so largely exported from this quarter hitherto; while those who may be induced from its perusal to stay at home, (and we doubt not there are numbers upon whom it will have that tendency,) will not do so in the idea of standing apart to witness the bursting of the most magnificent bubble of modern times.

As deserving first notice in the investigation of the internal resources and the commercial basis of the State, Mr. Werth presents the astonishing fact, that while the annual product of gold has reached *sixty millions of dollars*, the rate of interest on money, for all purposes of Commerce and improvement, is rigidly maintained at from *three to five per cent per month*, under the best securities known to the community. This he well characterizes a "monstrous anomaly in political economy—significant of serious derangement in its machinery." It brings directly home to California "the discouraging fact that her industry has not been compensated with thrift." What, he asks, avail to her all the bounties which nature has lavished upon

her, "if she retain within her borders no important portion of her own vast product—if she derives no element of strength—if she secures no means of building up diversified domestic interests, no power to accomplish essential improvements? If matters stand thus, she is the mere factor for other communities, without even a fair remunerating commission for the service."

It may, indeed, be seriously questioned, whether California, as a political community—whether her permanent resident people, her *citizens* (for it is to them that this question presents itself) have realized and invested, or retained within her borders in money or its fair equivalent, a commission of 5 per cent—or an aggregate of $8,000,000 as a legitimate result of her entire mining operations, and the trade and traffic immediately connected with them, from the first discovery of gold to the present day.

It is not intended to put this forth as a limit of the active capital in the country. Large amounts have been brought into it, either in property or money; and external Commerce has contributed important profits, resulting from the enterprising operations of her merchants with China, the Islands, and the Southern Coast. But these are all extraneous to her actual products of gold.

The cause of this unfavorable state of things is the often-stated fact of the absorption of labor in the mining pursuit, to the almost total neglect of agriculture, which has occasioned the unavoidable necessity of sending one large dividend of the product abroad to purchase means of subsistance.

California gets no share of that, save the small net profit retained by the merchant and trader, after they, too, have sent abroad the expense, frugal or luxurious, of their consumption of products foreign to the State. The remaining portion of the great aggregate production being profit, and subject to the disposal of the producer, would soon settle the agricultural lands, open up their resources, and accomplish valuable improvements, if it were realized and held by permanent residents, who would find their interest directly involved with other interests of the State, and who would instinctively prefer to invest their means in congenial enterprises at hand, under their own control, or within convenient supervision.

But, unhappily for California, this is not so. The present open policy of the mining region, not only does not entice, but, in truth, does not admit of permanent settlement, and fixed location. It encourages and constrains a floating population, and invites adventurers for a season. And this portion (the savings of the business) follows the first and goes to swell the steamers' manifests, or to make up the heavy item of "well-filled buckskins, carried home by miners without registry," *to be invested elsewhere.*

As the remedy for these things, a new policy is demanded. Under a proper system, the basis of which the course of the treatise develops, the better results will be that—

The profits of the miner will seek investment in her agricultural lands, in her Commerce, and in her improvements. Her farmers will find ready markets in the mines, cities, and villages. Her merchants will no longer be mere agents—crowding the markets, and encouraging extravagance and frightful waste at one season, and at another, holding an insufficient supply at enormous rates. Their own capital will enable them to order and purchase, and (if need be) hold their heavy stocks, to meet and arrest inordinate fluctuations. The consumer will be furnished at all times, at an approximation at least to regular prices; and he will thus be enabled to estimate, with tolerable accuracy, his necessary expenses, and the cost of any projected operation. In a word, her markets, instead of being mere gambling shops, (for their highly speculative character justifies the term,) will become well-regulated marts of Commerce.

The second and third chapters are devoted to *surface mining.* On this

subject the writer declares, what is evident, that too wide a margin of calculation, as to individual product and probable profit, has been indulged both at home and abroad. An equal distribution of product in mining operations is impossible, yet the gains have been far more evenly divided than is generally supposed. In regard to the varying accounts of the degree of success attained, the cases of enormous gains are frequently overstatements of the fact, and "generally deceptive, because while large amounts of gold are stated to have been taken out in 'a few days,' the parties furnishing the information omit to state, perhaps sometimes *remember to forget*, that they were engaged in unproductive preliminary labor for *a few weeks*, to enable them to reach the glittering pocket that yielded such a heavy *per diem* when found." Others "will insist on looking at the actual result of their labors through the inverted medium of their sanguine 'calculations' when they left home. They will not come down to dollars and cents, and *soberly compare the result of their labors here with any reward of mere labor in the Atlantic States.*" Of the accounts alluded to, he says, a feeling of amazement "has been frequently aroused by the reflection from the Atlantic board, as it brought back to a quiet observer in the gulches, and amid the realities themselves, these fanciful sketches of dazzling light and murky shade which have given their tone to public sentiment. There were no mild and mellow tints in these artistic views. The glare of meridian, and the impenetrability of midnight darkness, monopolized the canvas, without ever blending their hues." Mr. Werth estimates the gross product of the surface mines for last year at $750 per man, and the clear net savings that could be made at $400.

Respecting the expense of reaching California, and the discomforts and privations in the mines, put forward as insurmountable obstacles, and really very serious, the first has been, and will continue to be, very much reduced, while the latter has been modified, and under a system favorable to permanent settlement, will be entirely removed. The prejudice attaching to the mountain climate from the very unusual winter of 1849–50 is altogether unjust. The average winter climate is no more unpleasant in the mining region than in any State on the Atlantic side, north of Georgia. The winter of the extreme northern region is milder than that of New England, or even the Middle States. The regularity and variety of supplies now furnished by the competition of trade to the various settlements, and the increased comfort of the buildings occupied by the miners, indicate that "the period of privation and suffering is fast passing away."

Of the permanence of surface mining Mr. Werth entertains no doubt, and that it will for a long time to come yield better returns than the profits of labor generally in any other part of the world. The discovery of new placers has been constantly going on from the first opening at Sutter's Mill, in May, 1848, to the last day's intelligence from the mines, and the geological and topographical structure of the region makes it certain that the general surface of the valley, and to a great extent the mountains also, adjacent to the auriferous quartz veins, is impregnated more or less with the precious deposit. The area that can be profitably worked can be estimated only by thousands of miles, and even those which the miners now pass by as unworthy attention, will in a short period pay better wages to mere labor than any occupation they can follow elsewhere is now paying, or is ever likely to pay. Moreover, the washing heretofore has been most wastefully conducted. Within his own observation, places where gold has been found in very minute

and very thin scales—which he omits to mention is the most valuable form in which gold is found, and is precisely where a good smelter would extract the largest quantity, the gold being reduced to that state by its own abrasion—he is satisfied that not one-half the deposit was saved. In evidence of the inexhaustibility of the placers he mentions the important fact that of even the earliest and richest locations heretofore worked, very few are yet abandoned. Many of them are, indeed, yielding, under improved modes of operating, and with moderated expenses, as much profit as when first discovered. Take the returning emigrants as met with, whether pleased or disgusted with the country, and they will admit that there is gold ground enough now known, *but rejected*, to employ every man in the mining region for years to come at a rate of product of two dollars per day, under the present system of mining. All this immense area, however, they will insist is utterly worthless, because it will never be worked. Against this, we are told, that "two years ago men turned their backs upon placers that were yielding ten dollars per day—they thought they could not afford to work them, because it required more than half of this to pay the cost of living. *Now*, no prudent miner would desert a spot that yields three dollars per day—he can live comfortably for one." Two years hence, the cost of living will be reduced to at least fifty cents per day. The present aggregate product of sixty millions, Mr. Werth thinks will be sustained, if it shall not be increased.

This portion of the subject concludes with an allusion to Indian depredations and outrages. Thousands of miners were hemmed within narrow and unproductive limits during the whole of last winter, because of the peril of explorations beyond populous settlements. Means of repressing these savages are imperiously demanded. To the objection that the miners were the aggressors, an unanswerable argument is confronted, in the question, Why Congress should "tax its time and ingenuity to digest a scheme for appropriating these very lands—for regulating their occupancy, and their thorough search and occupation by our people, without adopting the essential preliminary means to securing to them quiet possession?" No doubt Congress intend to protect the miners, and perhaps think they have made efficient provision for that purpose in the appropriation of twenty-five thousand dollars voted at the last session. But this liberality is itself the best evidence of what Mr. Werth has asserted of the information of the government regarding the wants of California. There were *seven hundred miles* of border to be guarded against the Indians, and the sum appropriated would be absorbed in the transportation within California of eighty tons of subsistence for troops, and provisions and clothing for Indian tribes, for the first hundred miles.

The fourth chapter is on vein mining. Of the extent of the auriferous quartz formation of California, no estimate is given, but the assurance is offered that any disquiet about the *monopoly* of the whole area, by actual operations, will be for many years quite premature. The only question is as to the encouragement offered to the application of capital and labor. In treating of this, all the tales of wonder that have gone abroad of late, based upon "dazzling specimens," and supported by "incontestible evidence," "actual analysis," and "carefully-ascertained results," are thrown entirely out of calculation, and the worse than idle estimates heretofore offered to distant capitalists of the general average result of permanent and extensive operations, are wholly discarded. Veins, similar to those worked in the Southern

States, he estimates, would involve an expense at present, in California, in working, of $16 to $24 a ton. In the present state of things, he thinks capitalists cannot be induced to enter into the business in any vein yielding less than four cents per pound, equal to twenty times the product of the most profitable veins in the Southern States. As soon as the expense of labor and subsistence are reduced 50 per cent, auriferous quartz veins yielding 1 per cent a pound, or $20 a ton, will compensate labor and capital employed in them. The question is, therefore, merely one of time, and California is destined to furnish the most extensive and productive vein as well as surface mining in the world.

Chapter V. treats of the argentiferous and other ores. The attention of explorers has been so entirely absorbed in the search for gold, that other valuable ores—silver, copper, lead, iron, and even cinnabar—have been almost totally neglected. Clear proof is offered of the existence of these ores, and some of them in very rich mines. Some specimens of ore brought from the region of the Four Creeks were analyzed by Moffat & Co., with the following result:—

Silver, in a ton weight of the ore	$206 40
Gold, " " "	27 90
Lead, " " " lbs.	1,500

The disposal of the mineral lands forms the subject of the sixth chapter. The proposition is started that no system, repugnant to the people of California, can be enforced, though Congress may enact it; and although this may not be clear in the atmosphere of Washington, no one of its members would hesitate to acknowledge its infallibility, after mingling with the elements that would surround him in California. "The safety of the people is the supreme law," comprehends the simple and efficient criminal code of the people, and "The protection of local interests as the miners understand them," would be the irresistible substitute for any unfavorable "digest" of Federal legislation.

The system needed in regard to the mineral lands, is one that shall encourage, and so far as it can, constrain the permanent settlement of the immigrants. That is declared to be the great point, overshadowing all others. Until this is done, the wealth of California, both mineral and agricultural, can never be fully developed. All the schemes yet entertained by Congress are disapproved of, and declared impracticable, as are all that would impose any system of taxation by license, or by excise on production, or any plan whatever, "involving periodical collections of revenue."

We must refer the reader for the details of Mr. Werth's scheme regarding the disposal of these lands to the pamphlet itself. The author gives us no assurance that should it be adopted by Congress it can be carried into effect, although as fair a system, perhaps, as any which that body might be able to devise. It is apparently to his final suggestion only that Mr. Werth attaches any real consideration; namely, the cession of the mineral lands, under judicious conditions, to the State. We are not at all disposed to deny that this is the true policy for our government and the State of California both. Among these conditions are suggested a prohibition forever against the levying of any tax by the State on the *product* of the mines, or the *profits* of the miners, *as such*—that she shall assume her own river and harbor improvements—and that she should appropriate a portion of the proceeds of the sale or lease of the mineral lands toward the construction of a railroad from the waters of the Bay of San Francisco to the west-

ern line of the State, to meet any road extending from the Valley of the Mississippi to that line. The power of taxing the products of the mines, he thinks, will be exercised in a few years, if not relinquished in this way, in answer to the demand of the controlling population of her other districts.

A source of future difficulty, if not judiciously guarded, is pointed out in the collision between the two interests of surface and vein mining. No clashing has yet occurred of serious importance, but when surface miners have exhausted the richer deposits on the flats, they will find profitable work on the slopes up to the very ledges of the quartz veins, and when the hights come to be generally occupied by the vein miners, fresh parties will trace out and occupy locations on the *same veins in the flats*. It will be indispensable to the vein miners, also, to occupy the stream beds for dams, and the flats for settlements. It is apparent, therefore, as our author states, that it would be as difficult a task to our legislators, Federal or State, to disentangle the two departments by arbitrary lines, as to regulate railroad travel by assigning one rate of speed for the locomotive and another for the tender. Both must be placed under one regulation, and if laid off in sections, they must be marked out by parallel lines, and all within the same limits, whether deposits or veins, or wood or water, must be subject solely and exclusively to the occupant.

The question is difficult, but must be solved; for until some efficient system is provided, California is doomed to remain in the condition she has thus far occupied. That effected, and the greater portion of all who come within her borders, instead of carrying away her treasures to enrich other countries and places, will settle down as permanent citizens, and devote themselves to unlock the vast resources, and develop the mighty prosperity which are waiting to be realized.

We come now, in the seventh chapter, to the agricultural lands of California. The matter embodied in this chapter equals in interest that of the foregoing divisions. The amount of arable land is such that no inquiry, based on fear of want, need be raised during the present century. As to quality, the greater part of the soil along the valleys of the rivers is richer than anything known in any sections of corresponding extent, and perhaps in any lands whatever in other parts of the United States. The instances detailed, and well attested of the remarkable productiveness of that region, we cannot find room to repeat. Mr. Werth estimates that the general average product of *fifty millions of acres* of the surface of California, under ordinary American cultivation, may be assumed at very moderately at three hundred bushels of potatoes, fifty bushels (in suitable locations) of corn, forty bushels of wheat, fifty bushels of barley, and sixty bushels of oats, to the acre. The latter grain is indigenous to the soil, and furnishes a superabundant provision of food, in autumn and early winter, to the millions of cattle and horses, and the countless herds of elk and deer and antelopes that roam over an almost undisturbed domain.

Of animal precocity and fruitfulness in California, Mr. Werth says:—

Heifers, as a common rule, bring forth at *two years old*, and sheep multiply their kind *twice in each year, very frequently thrice in fifteen months*, and bringing, much oftener than in our old States, two at a birth. Our own race is not above this powerful influence; for we have the published authority of the Rev. Walter Colton for the fact that "it is no uncommon sight to find from fourteen to eighteen children at the same table, with their mother at their head;" and he gives instances of twenty-two! and "twenty-eight, with others, probably, yet to come!" Of none other than a land of health and plenty, could these things be true.

This outdoes the tales of even Irish fecundity; and if it is so, California ought not long to want the *citizens*, of whose non-existence our author so much complains, as a very small stock should afford an abundant population in a comparatively brief period. But it might be fair to ask why have not the Spaniards and Indians generally propagated in that region at something like this rate, or if they have, what has become of them all? How is it, that the Yankee invaders found only a sparse population of only about 12,000, of all races, complexions, kinds, and degrees?

But Mr. Werth insists that his picture is not exaggerated, and he appeals to the testimony of thousands, who will confirm every word he has uttered. He declares there is no other place with such a climate, a soil so generous—nature so bountiful—institutions so free, so reliable, so imperishable; and has no apprehensions that her valleys will remain long unpopulated and untilled, when the truth is fairly placed before the world.

The last chapter, the ninth, is on the Commerce of California, which is treated in a brief space, as having better means of introduction to the public attention than the other matters considered. But while the subject is before us, we deem it necessary to the completeness of the picture to give some view of its growth and prospects, from such data as have come within our notice.

Prior to the possession of California by the United States, and the start of San Francisco as a commercial city, the Republic of Chili—the only one of the nations of Spanish descent on the continent that has preserved anything like a proper appreciation of order and systematic industry—engrossed nearly the whole trade of the western coast of the American continent. Her capital, Valparaiso, was the great entrepôt of this Commerce, the supplies of the manufactures of Europe, and the luxuries of Asia, being thence distributed to the Pacific coast and islands. This commercial importance had been secured by a wise policy, encouraging foreign merchants to settle or establish branches of their business there, a system of bonding and warehousing foreign goods to facilitate the completion of assorted cargoes, and other measures, which have overcome some natural disabilities, that of a somewhat exposed harbor being among them.

The imports and exports of Chili during the years 1849, 1850, and 1851, were as follows:—

Years.	Imports consumed.	Exports of domestic produce.	Foreign merchandise re-exported.	Total exports.
1849.....	$10,722,840	$10,603,404	$1,033,817	$11,637,221
1850.....	11,789,703	11,592,452	1,179,227	12,771,679
1851.....	15,884,972	.....	.....	12,146,391

The following statement shows with what countries this Commerce was carried on, and the importance of the trade with each country, in 1849:—

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.
California.....	$20,523	$1,835,460
Peru.....	1,286,172	839,743
Bolivia.....	447,225	128,877
Mexico.....	128,053	4,407
Central America.....	118,834	13,497
New Grenada.....	118,834	23,327
Ecuador.....	140,620	44,508
Polynesian Isles.....	3,665	63,976
Spanish America and Pacific Islands .	$2,263,926	$2,953,705
China.....	226,773	63,597
Total Pacific trade.....	$2,490,699	$3,017,302

United States	$1,070,822	$1,754,428
Brazil	198,257	8,061
Argentine Confederation	171,753	87,886
Uruguay	1,478	69,907
Atlantic ports	$1,442,310	$1,870,282
Total with American countries	$3,702,571	$4,760,011
The Commerce with European countries was as follows :—		
England	$4,431,075	$4,295,859
France	1,079,942	676,755
Germany	846,448	677,798
Belgium	222,190	17,495
Holland	59,971	17,495
Spain	151,129	2,241
Sardinia	98,872	33,830
Portugal	12,846	2,241
Denmark	522	18,451
Prussia	121	920
Sweden and Norway	94	606
Total	$6,789,831	$5,715,820
Total of all	10,722,840	10,603,404
Of these exports there were—		
In copper, bars and ores		$2,780,329
In silver		3,223,633
In gold-dust		263,070
Total		$6,267,032
Exports to California—flour, grain, &c		1,885,460
Total		$8,102,492

The latter sum constitutes above three-fourths of the whole export. Of the exports of agricultural products, the amount shipped to California in several years was, in 1848 $250,193; 1849 $1,835,460; 1850 $2,448,868. Showing who feeds California and draws away her wealth, while she is neglecting her own luxurious valleys to wash over the glittering sands of the flats.

In all the markets of this Chilian trade, California has equal access, and has far greater resources, when developed, to found a Commerce upon. What she has already done, in comparison with Chili, will be seen in the statements following.

The point in this connection to which we wish to call especial attention, is the trade with China. In this important and highly interesting branch of her traffic, California has made remarkable strides, and is destined to achieve in it no insignificant part of all her future commercial greatness, however magnificent may be that result. The import of last year from China is stated at about eight hundred thousand dollars, having reached an extent nearly four times as large as that of Chili with the same empire. California is fast becoming the factor of the Pacific South American nations in this Chinese trade, an office which Chili has heretofore held exclusively to herself. The amount of dutiable goods imported into San Francisco from China, and *re-exported*, without paying duty, during the several quarters of the year commencing October 1, 1850, and ending September 30, 1851, was as follows :—

For the quarter from 1st October to 31st December, 1850	$2,992
For the quarter from 1st January to 31st March, 1851	2,950
For the quarter from 1st April to 30th June, 1851	19,579
For the quarter from 1st July to 30th September, 1851	31,000
Total for the year	$56,521

The extent to which this Commerce with China may be pushed is indefinite. The whole Western America is within the grasp of California, and will soon be made subsidiary to its development. On the Pacific she has no rival—Chili is already long distanced. When the great Pacific Railway is opened, San Francisco will become the entrepôt of that trade for the whole United States, and will be the medium of at least a portion of European incourse with the Celestials. But it is not with China only, but other portions of Asia—with the Indies, with all the islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and, when the penetrating spirit of the age shall undermine her thick walls of timid exclusiveness, with Japan—that our Pacific empire is to sustain its commercial relations. The importance of this trade is hardly to be over-estimated. It has been coveted by every nation that ever aspired to commercial greatness, and has an historic fame, as the nursery of empire that runs back into the very streams of unexplored tradition, and gleams in the tales of Oriental genius. Tyre, the first emporium of this trade, was made by it the richest and proudest city of the world. Nebuchadnezzar razed her to her foundations, and it at once restored her to her former pre-eminence. Balbec, Palmyra, Alexandria, Constantinople, Genoa, Venice, Lisbon, and Amsterdam, have each successively risen to the pinnacle of commercial grandeur, and almost exclusively upon the wealth derived from the East. A great part of the supremacy of London has been drawn from the same source. We come in last to enjoy this life-inspiring traffic, and are doubtless to reap a richer harvest than them all, in the deluge of spices and aromatics, silks and fine cottons, precious stones, porcelains, and teas. We shall have what no nation has had before, at least to make available, what has been the principal agency of carrying it on, and is the best medium for the purpose—abundance of gold and silver. Of these metals, Jacobs estimates India and China have received from Europe since the 15th century $2,100,000,000. The "beginning of the end" is already seen in the first results of our late visitations to those regions. The British trade has declined in that quarter, while ours has rapidly advanced. Our fast clippers, built since the commencement of the California era, have entered into successful competition with the English ships for the English carrying trade from Borneo and other Archipelagean islands, and the effect is already seen in the diminution of the number of English ships loaded, and the regular substitution of American ships in their place.

The Commerce of the United States, not including California, in the Pacific Ocean, for the year ending 30th June, 1850, is stated for the different countries and islands as follows:—

	Exports to.	Imports from.
Chili	$1,422,721	$1,796,877
Peru	275,728	170,753
Ecuador	84,925	4,618
Sandwich Islands	.....	64,474
South Sea Islands	189,862	.....
China	1,605,217	6,593,462
Manila and Philippine Islands	18,267	1,336,866
Total	$3,546,720	$9,967,050
Deduct amount of teas from China		4,585,720
The amount of all other articles is		$5,081,330

The books containing the value of the imports from the different ports of the Pacific into San Francisco, in 1850, were destroyed in the fire of May,

1851, but the value of exports *from Chili* to California, during the last six months of that year, was $1,542,866, about equal to the imports of all the rest of the United States from Chili, for the full year, and the *Picayune* estimates the imports from Chili into San Francisco, for the year, were above half the amount of all the imports of the rest of the United States from the Pacific, excluding tea. The whole importation into San Francisco, for the year, of dutiable goods for consumption, is estimated at $8,500,000, and the total importation at about $10,000,000, showing the Commerce of San Francisco, at that time, equal to that of all the rest of the United States with countries on the Pacific, and nearly double in other articles than tea.

The following statement presents a view of the total Commerce of California for fifteen month, from January 1, 1851, to March 14, 1852:—

	Vessels.	Tons.
Cleared from New York for California.....	84	73,357
Arrived from rest of United States.....	400	138,417
Arrived from all foreign places.....	590	148,474
Total.....	1,074	350,348

The value of the 84 vessels cleared from New York in this period is estimated at.....	$3,000,000
The number of steamers engaged in the carrying trade via the Isthmus of Panama and Nicaragua is 32, the value of which is estimated at.	9,400,000
Value of tonnage engaged directly between New York and San Francisco.....	$12,400,000
Estimated vale of shipping from foreign and other Atlantic ports.....	5,737,820
Total value.....	$18,137,820
The estimated value of the exports from the Atlantic ports of the United States, as computed by an intelligent New York merchant, will reach, for the year 1851, about.....	$31,000,000
The cost of merchandise from foreign ports during that period, it is presumed would reach, or even exceed.....	30,009,000
Total value of merchandise from all parts.....	$61,000,000

Below is a statement of the Commerce of all the Atlantic States whose exports or imports exceed a million of dollars, for the financial year ending June 30, 1851:—

	Exports.	Imports.
New York.....	$86,007,019	$141,546,538
Louisiana.....	54,418,963	12,528,460
Massachusetts.....	12,352,682	32,715,327
Alabama.....	16,528,824	413,446
South Carolina.....	15,316,578	2,081,812
Pennsylvania.....	5,356,036	14,168,761
Maryland.....	5,635,786	6,650,645
Georgia.....	9,159,989	721,547
Virginia.....	3,090,068	552,933
Florida.....	3,940,172	94,997
Maine.....	1,151,438	1,176,590

As to the exports of California, we will only restate what has been before affirmed in this Magazine, that those of San Francisco exceed in value the exports of the port of New York, and to California must therefore be conceded the rank of the *first* exporting State—and in regard to imports, it will be seen, that she is second only to New York.

The amount of duties collected at the principal ports of the United States, in the year ending June 30, 1851, was as here stated. San Francisco, it will be noticed, stands in the *fifth* place of the list :—

New York	$31,757,199	Portland	$209,030
Boston	6,577,540	Savannah	208,994
Philadelphia	3,667,838	Cincinnati	105,191
New Orleans	2,296,636	New Haven	102,139
San Francisco	2,120,884	Oswego	91,557
Baltimore	1,047,278	Mobile	76,184
Charleston	600,712	Richmond	70,235
St. Louis	213,832	Louisville	66,572

Of course, the large imports of breadstuffs, which have formed the basis of so large a part of the Commerce of California with the Pacific countries, will be cut off with the development of her own vast agricultural resources. But this event is not to be deprecated, for that country must be forever poor which is unable or fails to produce the main part of the food upon which its people subsist. It is not desirable that a trade, founded upon such a necessity, should continue. But with the cessation or reduction of this branch of her Commerce, it is not to be feared that either the maintenance or the extension of the present commercial importance of California will be interrupted. The growth of the other branches of her trade, and the development of new ones, will supply all the deficiency, and the result will be only to change her Pacific Commerce to a new and a firmer basis. With the progressive diversification of her labor, and multiplication of interests, California will gain more and more ability to buy, and will send forth a constantly enlarging demand for articles which she is unable to produce. When she raises her own wheat, barley, hay, potatoes, beef, and pork, she will find enough of the products of her mines remaining in her own hands to purchase iron for her railroads, to import locomotives—to secure all the improved implements, and avail herself of all the improved systems for working her mines and her farms—and to buy a thousand articles of necessity and luxury, now almost unknown, in her houses, her shops, and her public places, or only to be obtained at enormous expense.

In the *political* view attaching to the future of California, there is a greatness entirely commensurate with the aspect of every other feature in her remarkable destiny. Without computing the degree of her meridian influence, as a member of a Union so glorious already before her admission to the galaxy, or stopping to estimate the effect of her growth, her peculiar State elements and form, and the policies adopted for herself and those advocated for the nation, upon the other States—she has an *outward* part to perform, in a field most important, but hitherto almost unapproached. It has always been a prevalent belief among our people, that it is within the destiny of this country to introduce in the Spanish American nations that change of political ideas and social habits, which are so necessary to release them from the miserable condition in which they have been fast bound since their independence of Spain was effected,—and to enable them to attain that eminence of national prosperity and power, the elements of which are so lavishly bestowed upon the regions they inhabit. But *how* this was to be effected, was getting constantly more and more a mystery. Every effort to approach them on our part, with almost whatever intent, seemed unfortunate. It appeared at last, to the belief of many, that there was a natural antipathy between the race, or mixture of races, on our soil, and the Amer-

icanized Spanish—a repulsion springing from ineradicable distinctions in their natures, and designed to keep them perpetually separate. From this view, mixed with a certain revengeful spirit against the antagonist, whose fault alone the failure was deemed to be, came the sanguinary notion that we were to push aside and to exterminate all these ignorant, unprogressing communities—either directly by the sword, or through the influence of some incandescent emanation of the nobler *vis vitæ* of Anglo-Saxonism, before which the feebler spirits in our path should be scorched and shriveled, utterly unable to withstand this annihilative energy. This idea saw the commencement of the work to which it looked, in the Mexican War. But those who repudiated the theory of normal distinctions of character, with its consequences, and others, whose faith was in principles in the place of blood, beheld in that contest the inception of an order of circumstances and relations, through which our superiority should find its proper exercise in teaching the poor Spanish-Americans a better system—should freely impart to him the elements of that vigor which should raise him to become the more equal associate of his stronger brother. The grand incident of California was opened—and then, in its shade, the wise plan of the Creator clearly revealed its outlines. It began to be evident *for what* the unhappy Republics of the South had been assigned the position they have so long occupied, and been kept waiting therein. The grand conjunction of events then occurring, revealed the mode and manner of the political regeneration of South America.

But it is not to this side the Pacific that the political influence of California will be confined. It is destined to reanimate the slumbering nations of Eastern Asia, which passed the zenith of their greatness and splendor, while the world was yet fresh from the hands of the Architect, and have since reposed in the long night of semi-barbarism, while the day-light of progress has slowly traced its western circuit of the earth. Already the glory of her morning gleams as a second dawn upon the shores of China, and the cold moonshine of Celestial civilization begins to pale before its genial glow. The Chinaman, breaking down the thick walls of his indurated egotism, admires the beauties of another system, another world, another individuality. He sees the Outer Barbarism has something better for him than he knows or can know beneath his Inner Lumination. He is a denizen of California—and proves himself worthy to be such. He proves how easily the restraints of a vain and selfish policy, although of ages' standing, are thrown off, when individual common-sense is allowed its office, and how quickly, when permitted, men will turn from the artificial to that which is natural. The Chinaman stands side by side with the men of all nations in the gulches and arroyas, and meets them all as a brother in the mart. He is studying American laws, customs, and habits, and facilely bending to the character which is being developed from the great amalgam. The influence which the Americanized Chinaman will send back upon his native country will be incalculable—it will be the seed, arriving at a speedy fruition, of a new, a totally different order of things. That the hostility which has been exhibited in California toward the Chinese should triumph in their exclusion, is, we believe, in the present state of things there, and of opinions elsewhere, utterly impossible. But while we regret the inimical spirit with which they have been met, we are something reconciled to its exhibition for the opportunity it gave for the rebuke of *American* narrow-mindedness by those before regarded by us as exclusive, bigoted, and dwarfed in idea above all men. The

reply of the Chinamen to the disparagements of Governor Bigler, is a paper than which, we venture to say, neither Americans in China, nor any other misappreciated and wronged people in any place whatever, could have elaborated a better. The gubernatorial assailant of the Chinamen is routed, horse, foot, and dragoons, and that by means so plain, so simple, appealing so directly throughout to common-sense, that there is not room left for a single evasion or turn. Could the Governor have read this document before issuing his missive, we doubt if the latter would ever have seen light. As it is, it is undoubtedly better that the two papers, the error and antidote, have been published together.

It cannot be long before a new day will burst also upon Japan—and the tawdy grandeur of that empire—its petrified policies of millennial ages—its fossilated ideas—its curtailed and hide-bound humanism, will, along with the cast-off shell of old custom in the universal East, be consigned to the antique shelf of the historic museum. Perhaps a new wave of civilization, flowing upon the surface of the tide-elevation created by the first, will start forward from that glorious region, and make another western circuit of the earth.

In the course of this progress, let us not suppose *we* have nothing to change. Theories now current in Politics and in poor, baffled Science, will be summarily shaken in pieces. So rapid will be the work beyond all overturnings of error ever before made, that astute professors will suddenly find themselves in woful bereavement of their ideas—and authors reposing on the delighted anticipation of an achieved immortality of centuries' length, will behold the whole fabric of their fame swallowed up in a night. That knowledge of the general Humanity, breaking down the shallow distinctions of race once dividing the whole earth into selfish clans and sects, cribbing and dwarfing the growth of every good impulse, and chaining the wheels of human progress—those new truths, new thoughts, and new results, which have been elicited from the commingling in equality, of people of different birth in the Atlantic region—are to be developed in much swifter expansion on the Pacific. What we shall see *there* will teach us the lesson which has been *here* only partially recognized—that there is nothing in blood and in essential peculiarities of race, giving one part of the family a tendency to growth and glory, and another an irrepressible proclivity to abasement and extinction. All these follies we shall cast into the same oblivious reservoir in which we buried, three-fourths of a century since, the venerable errors honored in Europe time out of mind. We shall come to the practical Christian doctrine of regarding all Men as children of one Father—created of one blood—members of one family—all of whom, the greatest misfortune has ever been the existence (at least, the continuance beyond any necessity) of the narrow feelings that limited their affections and fellowships to little nationalities and clan-ships, regarding as enemies, aliens, inferiors, outside-barbarians, all beyond—and whose greatest stride forward is that which breaks down the prejudices that build these miserable partitions—shows us our mutual capacities and interests, and teaches us that we can labor with far better success in the sociability of our general nature than in the petty exclusiveness and shriveled idea of our feeble isolations.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE DANUBE.

The largest of the important rivers which flow into the Black Sea is the Danube, which, for its length, and the many rich and populous countries through which it passes, as well as for the amount of its navigation, may be eminently called the Mississippi of Europe.

From its source to its mouth it is nearly 2,000 miles in length, and receives some 30 navigable rivers and a vast number of tributary streams.

From its source to its mouth, it descends 2,178 feet, yet its descent is so gradual that its early rapids are, near Oresova, where it leaves the Austrian dominions, and its cataract there, called the "Iron Gate," is very picturesque.

The steam navigation of the Danube may be said to commence at Vienna. Steamers go as far as Presburg; at Peath it is also navigated by vessels or boats not drawing more than 2½ feet.

In its progress through Turkey, it varies in breadth from 1,400 to 2,100 yards, and its average depth is upwards of 20 feet. Ships of large size ascend it as far as Siliztra, and vessels of 300 tons go to Galatz.

Its mouth is much obstructed with sand-banks, and of the five passages through which it flows into the Black Sea, one only, that of Sulina, has sufficient depth of water to permit of the navigation.

The delta of the Danube is a vast swampy flat, interspersed with lagoons covered with bulrushes; and the bar of Sulina has only from 10 to 12 feet of water.

The navigation is said also to be annually more and more obstructed by fresh accessions of mud and sand, which the current has not sufficient strength to carry away.

Were it not for its falls, at the "Iron Gate," this great river would be navigable, by one means or another,from its mouth to Ulm, in Wirtumburg. At these falls, a land carriage of some 8 or 10 miles joins the lower with the upper navigation.

It was a favorite project of uniting the Danube with the Rhine, whose mouth is in the North Sea, which of late years has been effected, and the result must eventually be an extensive increase of the Commerce of both rivers.

But the history of the Commerce of all great rivers may be best told in stating that of the chief cities or towns near its mouth. As of the Mississippi, the trade of New Orleans is the best statement of its Commerce; so of the Danube, the trade of Galatz comprises the greater part of the traffic of this great European River.

The fol owing statistics are furnished by Mr. Negropont, a Greek gentleman holding the office of Vice-Consul of the United States at Galatz; and he being a merchant, and desirous of making the Commerce of the ports under his jurisdiction known to the mercantile community of our own great marts, with a view to its participation in it, his reports may be entirely confided in.

It will be perceived that in 1849 no less than 588 vessels loaded cargoes at Galatz, and that in 1850, the number was 391; that the imports of 1849 valued more than $2,000,000, the exports, $2,600,000; that in the year following, the imports $2,100,000, and the exports, $2,300,000; and this

principally from consumption in the two Turkish Provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia. The details of this Commerce, as given by Mr. Negropont, cannot but be greatly interesting to commercial men, and they are given in the hope that they may prove useful.

"It is only since 1825 and '26," says Mr. Negropont, "that the Commerce of Galatz and Ibraila has begun to develop itself. Previous to the last war, between Russia and Turkey, the trade and navigation of the Danube was unimportant; between Galatz and Ibraila there were few European houses of Commerce; now the number is considerable. What is surprising, is the great increase of the trade directly with England, which country formerly purchased the products of the Danubian Provinces at Trieste and Marseilles. English vessels now visit the Danube to the number of 60 to 80 a year, computing miscellaneous commodities of the consumption of the Provinces, and conveying away grains of different kinds, tallow, preserved meats in cannisters, some fruits, and potash."

"English manufactures are very abundant in the Danubian Provinces, (Wallachia and Moldavia,) of which Galatz and Ibraila are the chief ports. These are ordered by houses being in direct communication with the manufacturers in England, and are suited to the tastes and demands of the inhabitants."

This is one great secret of the success of British manufactures in foreign countries, and especially in the "East," where English consuls, being themselves merchants, are required to send to England specimens of the native manufactures; these are, by the proper commercial and consular bureau, laid open for the inspection of the manufacturers, and in a short space of time goods much superior to that of the native looms, and much cheaper, are offered for sale to the community requiring them. Then competition sets in; other houses, not consular-commercial, profit by the information thus conveyed to the public at large; and soon *quality* is lost in the endeavor to undersell other firms. In this manner, American cotton goods, the original occupiers of the field, have been almost entirely driven out of the market.

Of the mouths of the Danube, Mr. Negropont observes, that the whole and chief difficulty of the navigation of the Danube is, that at its mouth the water is not always of a sufficient depth to admit large vessels, and is only navigable for those of medium size; so much so that few vessels can enter the river without having to lighter at its mouth, near Sulina.

This obstruction, to which vessels are subject, is a great evil to Commerce. Conceive the inconvenience of vessels arriving at Sulina with their freights on board, ready to put to sea; the water proves too shallow, and a great portion of the load must be discharged into boats which are always ready there for such cases. This is an inconvenience, loss of time, and of their excessive prices, which the lighterers demand; and, thirdly, the great danger there often is of wetting the cargo by the operation, and even of having portions of it stolen.

Sulina produces but a small quantity of grain, and yet considerable is exported from it annually,—the fruits, no doubt, of the illicit acts of those engaged in discharging and lightering vessels which cannot otherwise cross the bar.

The Sulina mouth is inaccessable to vessels having westerly winds, and they are compelled to be towed or tracked, (if the wind is light,) but this is not often needed. The depth is not always the same there; its minimun is

9 English feet, and the maximum, 13 feet.* The following will serve to show the nature of the stream at different winds;—

March, April, May.....English feet	9
June and July.....	11
August, September, and October.....	12 to 13

During the inundations, the water diminishes in depth so much that whilst the banks of the Danube are overflowed, the depth at Sulina is the least. No vessel then of 110 tons (register measurement) can leave the river without lightering. This, however, also depends upon her construction.

On the subject of the agriculture of the Danubian Provinces, Mr. Negropont observes, Moldavia is much more cultivated than Wallachia, comparatively with their respective extent of territory. The latter contains a great portion of her soil uncultivated, so much so that her powers or capabilities of producing are as yet unknown, whilst those of Moldavia have been proved.

Were the soil of Wallachia as much cultivated as that of Moldavia, on the Danube, she could produce six times as much grain as is now produced by her rival neighbor. And yet Moldavia needs an improved system of agriculture, by which means her export Commerce would be also augmented. The evidence of this, it suffices to know that after a crop of grain has been reaped the land is permitted to be sterile, for at least two years, which is thought indispensable, and then resown with grain. The dressing of the cattle, which collects in the winter season, is thrown into the nearest stream, or in some useless spot, on account of the idea entertained that it would injure the crops if thrown on the fallow ground; and this perhaps is so, for they never plow the soil deeper than three or four inches, and in covering it with a dressing so shallow the dampness might escape with greater facility, and thus injure the crop. Notwithstanding, it has been observed that where the cattle graze there is an advantage to the crop. It is, however, but little probable that an amelioration will be made in the agriculture of the Provinces; and the greatest reason for this is the system of serfage in them. The serf being obliged to work a certain portion of land for his master the Bayard, he wishes to get through it as quickly and as easy as possible, without caring whether his work is well done or not.

Another cause which prevents this is the custom of leasing lands only for three years, which prevents the farmer from introducing improvements. Yet it is proper to observe, that, latterly, some Bayards have introduced machinery from England for beating out grain. The usual method as used in the Provinces, for separating the grain from the chaff, is to place a quantity of grain in the straw in an inclosure, which from ten to fifteen horses are turned and driven round, until all the grain on the ground is damp; and if the season is a wet one during the harvest all the grain will be so.

The machine for beating out the grain produces 20 per cent more of the same quality of straw, besides the facility of working under cover, and that also of having dry grain.

The system of cultivation is nearly the same in Wallachia, only that it is

* This is doubtless owing to the winds. If strong from the east it rises, or descends, if westerly. The same occurs in the Bosphorus, and the current, which is generally into the Marmora, is turned into the Black Sea, by southerly winds.

less advanced. The quantity of the grain in both the Provinces is not increased; and on a calculation of different seasons, not half of the grain of Moldavia can be sent to England; the remainder being of too inferior a quality, or in too bad a condition; and for the same reason not more than a fourth of the grain of Wallachia can be shipped to England.

Formerly the inferior grain of Moldavia and Wallachia found an easy sale in Constantinople, but since 1842, when the exportation of Turkish grain was permitted by the government, the quantity produced in Turkey has so much increased, that Constantinople is now abundantly supplied from its own vicinity, and the cultivators of Wallachia and Moldavia must find means of improving the grains or they will soon find it difficult to dispose of it. In neither Province is it now customary to put the grain in holes in the ground, as formerly, for safe keeping, and consequently it has not the smell which in former times did so much injury to its sale.

It is surprising that though the quality of wheat and barley is generally very inferior, the Indian corn (maize) of Moldavia is considered to be the very best in the world.

The quantity produced has greatly increased in the last few years, and if it were needed for England, at the price of 24 shillings, or more, delivered in England, the production would be greatly augmented.

The following table will serve to show the quantity of grain, of different kinds, exported from the two chief ports of Moldavia and Wallachia, in the last 12 years:—

	GALATZ.			IBRAILA.				
	IN QUARTERS IMPERIAL.							
Year.	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Total.	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Barley.	Total.	Grand Total.
1837	98,380	86,964	185,344	75,792	24,313	28,142	128,247	229,984
1838	171,813	58,374	230,187	61,524	37,200	106,230	204,954	435,141
1839	148,117	133,762	281,871	143,184	57,172	42,822	243,178	525,057
1840	230,568	189,037	419,605	132,596	68,586	80,145	281,227	700,832
1841	100,845	35,394	136,239	84,692	26,818	20,954	132,464	268,703
1842	154,675	93,531	248,206	160,121	10,221	73,892	244,234	492,440
1843	107,634	140,662	248,206	322,343	121,309	168,669	612,321	864,208
1844	166,535	174,023	340,558	347,888	128,231	211,972	688,081	1,031,508
1845	180,032	157,101	337,133	314,940	124,714	175,802	615,456	966,393
1846	110,902	336,627	447,529	327,526	163,145	177,343	668,014	1,191,649
1847	180,860	318,605	499,465	390,818	619,115	300,552	1,310,485	1,836,647
1848	113,605	143,727	257,332	159,484	292,115	193,435	645,034	930,812

The quantity of rye and of barley exported from Galatz being of little importance it is not stated in the above; nor is the rye and millet of Ibraila.

The preceding table indicates the progress of the exportation of grains in the last twelve years from the two ports mentioned in it; but the increase is rendered more evident by dividing that period into two portions, of six years each, when the following results are shown:—

EXPORTS FROM GALATZ.

Wheat, 1837 to 1842.....imperial quarters	815,356
" 1843 to 1848.....	859,568
The increase in the six last years is 5 per cent, in imperial quarters.	44,212
Indian Corn, 1837 to 1842.....imperial quarters	597,062
" 1843 to 1848.....	1,270,745
The increase in 6 years, 110 per cent, or, imperial quarters.....	673,683
Whole exportation.....quarters	717,395

This table shows an increase in the last six years' exportation of some 50 per cent.

EXPORTATION OF IBRAILA.

Wheat, 1837 to 1842	imperial quarters	667,909
" 1843 to 1848		1,862,909
Increase in last 6 years 180 per cent, or, imperial quarters		1,195,090
Indian Corn, 1837 to 1842	imperial quarters	224,310
" 1843 to 1848		1,448,619
Increase in 6 years, 545 per cent, or, imperial quarters		1,224,309
Barley, 1837 to 1842	imperial quarters	358,085
" 1843 to 1848		1,127,773
Increase in the last 6 six years, 215 per cent, or, imperial quarters		769,688
Total increase		3,189,087

In the last six years, the exportation has increased 255 per cent, upon that of the preceding six years three-and-a-half times. In drawing a comparison between the exportation of Galatz and Ibraila, we find that during the six first years Galatz exported Grain—

Imperial quarters	1,412,918
And Ibraila	1,250,304

Which shows that the amount of exportation of Galatz exceeds that of Ibraila one-seventh, or, imperial quarters, 161,614.

During the second period of six years it is seen that Galatz exported grain to the amount of—

Imperial quarters	2,130,313
And Ibraila	4,439,319
The latter exceeding the former quarters	2,309,006

The following table shows the value of the articles exported from Galatz and Ibraila each year, in pounds sterling :—

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Total.
1837	120,213	113,481	233,694
1838	172,168	148,238	320,406
1839	280,713	297,206	577,919
1840	504,447	364,030	868,477
1841	189,036	225,610	414,646
1842	268,353	288,636	556,989
1843	225,345	449,556	674,865
1844	303,885	551,044	854,929
1845	379,797	698,680	1,078,477
1846	592,578	764,909	1,357,487
1847	775,528	1,592,944	2,368,472
1848	333,271	611,958	945,229

Besides grain, the only article of any importance exported is suet, of which the following is a table for the last twelve years.

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.
1837	104	18,112	1843	22,212	48,101
1838	250	27,557	1844	20,480	48,603
1839	....	41,838	1845	12,683	49,732
1840	232	35,939	1846	12,423	27,102
1841	2,657	48,470	1847	12,020	21,649
1842	9,922	40,635	1848	6,207	28,018

There is also an establishment at Galatz for the preservation, in hermetically sealed tin boxes, of fresh beef, from which about 500 tons of meat is sent annually to England.

The following table shows the number of vessels loaded at Galatz and Ibraila from 1837 to 1848:—

	1837.	'38.	'39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44.	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Galatz.....	431	517	635	645	230	309	327	509	464	644	662	397
Ibraila	448	451	573	661	238	411	772	875	832	911	1,553	726
Total.....	879	968	1,208	1,306	468	720	1,099	1,384	1,296	1,555	2,215	1,123

A comparison of the first six years of this period with the six last years, I find the following results:—

At Galatz, from 1837 to 1842.....vessels	2,767
At Ibraila.....	2,772
Total.....	5,539
At Galatz, from 1843 to 1848 .....vessels	3,003
At Ibraila.....	5,666
Total.....	8,669

Having an increase during the last six years of 3,130 vessels.

It may be remarked that the vessels which visited the Danube during the latter period were of a larger size, and of a better class, than those of the preceding term. During the first, 5,539 were loaded with 2,663,222 imperial quarters, whilst during the second, 8,669 vessels were loaded with 6,536,632 quarters, and in deducting from the above stated number of vessels those loaded with planks, staves, &c., the medium cargoes of grain of each ship during the first period were about 550 quarters, whilst in those of the second the medium cargo was at least 850 quarters.

There are many small vessels under Turkish and Greek colors which frequent the Danube, and which never go further than Constantinople.

The following table will show the number of vessels which have loaded at Galatz and Ibraila during the past twelve years:—

Flag.	1837.	'38.	'39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44.	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Greek.....	272	259	320	477	196	329	457	561	587	645	589	432
Turkish.....	282	358	377	412	87	133	216	367	317	500	629	247
Austrian.....	84	20	87	92	20	37	77	105	71	58	123	99
English.....	15	6	12	8	3	14	7	26	19	52	394	132
Sardinian	104	120	194	136	38	71	113	128	97	91	148	66
Russian	53	61	89	103	77	77	149	107	94	101	112	56
Wallachian.....	17	12	19	15	9	13	23	17	25	27	41	24
Moldavian.....	..	..	..	..	3	7	3	..	9	20	16	17
Samian	7	8	17	15	6	3	5	13	16	13	12	5
Ionian	38	40	53	36	23	28	33	38	41	34	29	28
Roman	..	1	6	1	..	..	..	1	4	2	9	2
Belgian.....	2	2	2	2	..	4	1	1	..	..	5	2
Jerusalem.....	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Neapolitan.....	..	2	13	7	..	1	5	10	7	3	13	1
French	..	8	11	1	..	2	3	3	6	7	52	8
Danish.....	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	..	..	8	1
Bremen.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Tuscan.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	3	2	1
Prussian	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	3	..	1	11	..
Holland.....	3	1	3	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	8	..
Sweden.....	..	..	..	..	1	1	2	..	..	..	5	2
Hamburg	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	..
Norwegian.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	3	..
Hanover.....	..	..	..	..	2	1	1	..	..	1	3	..
American	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
Mecklenburg.....	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Soutien.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	..	..

The following also states the number of vessels which took in cargo at Galatz and Ibraila for England, from 1837 to 1848:—

	1837.	'38.	39.	'40.	'41.	'42.	'43.	'44	'45.	'46.	'47.	'48.
Galatz	13	1	7	5	1	6	8	9	5	13	135	72
Ibraila	2	5	5	3	2	8	4	17	14	9	259	60
Total	15	6	12	8	3	14	7	26	19	52	394	132

and the following, of those which loaded there direct for England, from 1843 to 1848:—

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Galatz	4	10	9	57	206	115
Ibraila	3	16	35	11	362	115
Total	7	26	44	68	568	230

It is necessary to remark that, for some time past, half of the grain loaded directly for England, is generally sent to Constantinople and Malta, expressly for the purpose of being there reëmbarked for England; and this too besides what is sent to these ports for sale, and then purchased for the same destination.

The change made in the navigation laws of Great Britain will not probably make much difference in the number of vessels seeking freight in the Danube for England.

Besides English vessels, the Austrians may, by treaty, load directly for England—also the Greeks, but the latter must touch at a port in Greece before proceeding on to England,—which, however, occasions them but little delay or extra expense. All vessels are now equally favored.

The only flag which frequents the Danube in large numbers is the Sardinian; but as there is a high protection for the trade of their country, it is not probable that it will come into much competition with the English flag for the transportation of grain to Great Britain.

The change in the navigation laws of Great Britain will not cause, but for a short time, a reduction in the freights. It is known that it suits English vessels to come out from England in ballast, and to load them with wheat and Indian corn at eleven shillings per quarter, and making two voyages to England, without any difficulty, each year; but Austrian and Greek vessels do not seek after cargoes for England under fourteen shillings per quarter.

It is true that during the present year, 1849, several Austrian vessels loaded at Galatz and Ibraila at 10s. 6d. and 11s. 6d., but the position of Austria explains sufficiently the reason which made her merchant vessels to accept freights at a rate lower than usual,—and at present English vessels do not obtain more than 9s. 6d. the quarter; no Austrian ship will accept such a freight. There are a few Greek vessels of a size suitable for a voyage to England; and as the risk is greater with Greek ships than English, the latter always have the preference, and a freight of one shilling per quarter greater. Greek vessels do not seek for freight to England under thirteen shillings per quarter.

The exportation from Bulgarian Turkey, by the Danube, does not increase, as will be seen from the following note of the exports during the first months of the present year. The greater portion of the grain is loaded from the Bulgarian ports in the Black Sea:—

Wheat	imperial quarters	25,422
Indian Corn		40,670
Barley		12,976

The Danube is obstructed by ice during a portion of the winter season, and it is necessary for masters of vessels to be careful not to arrive so late as to run the risk of being compelled to pass the winter there.

The following table shows the period of the ice during several years :—

1836-37.....	February 7th.....	February 28th.
1837-38.....	December 29th.....	March 3d.
1838-39.....	December 24th.....	March 13th.
1839-40.....	January 12th.....	February 2d.
1840-41.....	December 17th.....	March 21st.
1841-42.....	December 26th.....	March 9th.
1842-43.....	Remained open the whole year.	
1843-44.....	January 12th.....	February 27th.
1844-45.....	December 28th.....	January 23d.
1845-46.....	Remained open the whole year.	
1846-47.....	January 15th.....	February 13th.
1847-48.....	January 2d	March 1st.
1848-49.....	January 1st.....	February 22d.

It is the general opinion that the Commerce of the Danube must become still more important at its mouth; of this its development has, thus far, been retarded by political reasons or on account of its having been neglected to remove the accumulation of sand at the mouth of Sulina. It is certainly much desired that this mouth should be cleaned out and deepened, and yet there is no sufficient reason for believing that the Commerce of the Danube, by its mouth, would become more considerable than it is at present. The exportation will be limited to the produce of Moldavia and Wallachia, of a portion of Bessarabia and Turkey, in the environs of Tulcha.

It may be mentioned, that the products of Hungary are not in demand for the Black Sea, or for Turkey, but for the Mediterranean and the countries out of the Straits of Gibraltar. From any part of the Danube, above the junction of the Saave, and for some distance below it, the produce may be transported to Fuime, by the Saave, and by land carriage, at equally cheap rates, as far as Galatz; and from Fuime, the freights would always be cheaper than from Galatz. So long as the difficulties at the "Iron Gate" exist, few products will descend from beyond it. An attempt was made with rape seed above the "Iron Gate" and brought it down to Ibraila; but as within the last few years, nothing has come from so high up, it must be supposed that it was not found profitable.

The Bulgarians, for the most part find it advantageous to transport their produce to the Black Sea; and from a part of Bessarabia, it is better to transport it to Odessa. It may be remaked that in the trade between Vienna and Constantinople the plan has been made of discharging the steamer at Chernevoda, and to transport the passengers and merchandise, as far as Kustenja, by land, by which means two days are saved in the voyage; and if this route has been abandoned, it is on account of there being no shelter at Kustenja, and when it is bad whether, much difficulty is experienced in discharging and reloading the goods; but if there were a good harbor there, the trade between Constantinople and Vienna would again go by this route, and would not pass any more by the mouth of Sulina.

Respecting the imports of Galatz and Ibraila by the Danube, during the period from 1837 to 1848, it is added—

The tables of imports given each year show sufficiently the different articles imported into the Provinces by the Danube, and therefore the

revisions of them will now be limited to English articles. Yet it must be remembered that the only articles imported, except those of England, are the fruits and oil of the Levant.

Table showing the principle articles imported entirely, or for the most part from England from 1837 to 1848:—

	GALATZ.				IBRAILA.		
Year.	Cotton spun in twist.		Iron. Tons.	Coal. Tons.	Cotton spun in twist.		Iron. Tons.
1837.....	917	601	480	280	40	135	66
1838.....	1,030	1,564	1,060	20	not complete.		
1839.....	1,300	1,205	410	570	47	584	290
1840.....	1,200	1,621	803	1,454	590	683	346
1841.....	1,150	1,130	453	600	1,070	1,295	420
1842.....	1,350	1,050	685	1,600	1,930	915	495
1843.....	1,488	1,757	874	905	1,695	1,200	480
1844.....	1,880	2,197	817	1,966	2,218	1,025	560
1845.....	2,001	1,647	1,728	1,688	2,727	1,038	650
1846.....	not complete.						
1847.....	5,994	2,707	2,086	4,928	4,175	1,908	1,761
1848.....	4,181	2,946	1,315	5,065	3,540	2,394	2,781

The following table shows the value estimated on all the the vessels by the Danube, to Galatz and Ibraila, from 1847 to 1848, inclusive, in pounds:

Year.	Galatz.	Ibraila.	Total.
1837.....	86,674	10,781	97,405
1838.....	186,998	not complete.	
1839.....	146,461	47,388	193,839
1840.....	200,294	90,781	291,075
1841.....	164,114	132,938	297,052
1842.....	169,191	178,155	347,346
1843.....	187,454	177,646	365,100
1844.....	223,635	171,896	395,531
1845.....	223,978	208,051	432,029
1846.....	not complete.		
1847.....	415,007	277,219	692,226
1848.....	319,403	287,291	606,694

From the preceding table it is seen that the importation of English manufactures and spun cotton, which in the year 1837 was only about 1,000 bales, for Galatz and Ibraila, has increased in twelve years to 8,000 bales or more; and it is probable that it will increase in the same proportion during the coming twelve years—that is, in case some new misfortune does not happen to the Provinces; and there is no doubt but that so long as the exports increase the imports will increase in the same proportion.

The following details of the trade of the Provinces will serve to show more minutely the return and amount of the exports and freight for the year 1849:—

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO GALATZ UP THE DANUBE IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Twist—British.....pkgs	4,820	£40 0 0	£193,680
Manufactures—not British.....	139	30 0 0	4,170
Cotton yarn—Turkish.....	30	15 0 0	450
Sugar, refined and crushed...cks & bbls.	4,504	20 0 0	90,080
Coffee.....bags & bbls.	1,489	4 0 0	5,956
Pepper.....bags	2,482	0 30 0	3,723
Cloves and other spices.....pkgs	76	7 0 0	532
Rum.....hhds. & bbls.	741	7 0 0	5,187

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Tin in bars ..... cwt.	440	5 0 0	2,200
Tin plates ..... boxes	979	2 0 0	1,958
Iron in bars, rods, and sheets ..... tons	1,807	9 0 0	16,263
Steel ..... cases	44	3 0 0	132
Nails ..... bbls.	135	0 30 0	202
Lead ..... pigs	168	0 16 0	134
Lead shot ..... cwt.	340	0 50 9	850
Tar and pitch ..... bbls.	469	0 15 0	351
Alum	51	2 0 0	102
Coals ..... tons	3,518	0 25 0	4,397
Saltpeter ..... bbls.	89	4 0 0	356
Gunpowder	5	6 0 0	30
Vitriol and copperas	76	0 50 0	190
Logwood ..... cwt.	630	0 8 0	252
Indigo ..... chests	8	80 0 0	640
Cotton wool, Levant ..... bales	205	5 0 0	1,025
Soap ..... cwt.	1,635	0 35 0	2,861
Oil olives	8,800	2 0 0	17,600
Olives ..... skins & bbls.	2,476	0 15 0	1,857
Wine ..... bbls.	47	4 0 0	188
Champagne and other wines ..... cases	141	5 0 0	705
Porter ..... bbls.	326	3 0 0	978
Raisins	1,750	2 0 0	3,500
Raisins ..... drums	8,974	0 10 0	4,487
Figs	3,669	0 8 0	1,468
Figs ..... bbls.	845	2 0 0	1,690
Lemons and oranges ..... bbls. & cases	3,500	1 0 0	3,500
Almonds ..... bbls.	176	2 0 0	352
Filberts	172	0 15 0	129
Dates	83	4 0 0	332
Chestnuts	126	0 15 0	95
Pine seeds	27	2 0 0	54
Chick peas	264	3 0 0	792
Locusts, or carubs ..... cwt.	1,175	0 5 0	294
Citrons ..... bbls.	59	3 0 0	177
Halva ..... bbls. & dried	640	0 10 0	320
Rice ..... cwt.	5,360	1 0 0	5,360
Tobacco	1,920	5 0 0	9,600
Caviar black ..... casks	23	3 0 0	1,380
Caviar red ..... bbls.	64	12 0 0	768
Sardines	361	0 30 0	542
Fish, salt	228	1 0 0	228
Polipe	14	20 0 0	280
Ciri (dried fish) ..... mille.	24	0 12 0	14
Aniseed ..... bbls.	39	5 0 0	195
Incense ..... cases	37	5 0 0	185
Salep ..... cwt.	4	3 0 0	12
Mastic ..... cases	17	2 0 0	34
Galls ..... bbls.	3	15 0 0	45
Macaroni ..... cwt.	44	0 25 0	55
Furniture ..... cases	9	10 0 0	90
Chairs ..... doz.	175	3 0 0	525
Paint ..... cases	47	1 0 0	47
Earthenware ..... crates	62	3 0 0	186
Window-glass ..... cases	210	2 0 0	420
Books	19	5 0 0	95
Paper, writing	34	5 0 0	170
Paper, for cigars	49	5 0 0	245
Lemon-juice ..... bbls.	16	10 0 0	160
Orange-peel ..... bags	49	0 10 0	24
Dressed leather ..... bales	816	10 0 0	8,160
Pipe-bowls ..... cases	44	1 0 0	44
Cigars ..... boxes	64	3 0 0	192

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Abba, or coarse cloth ..... bales	297	10 0 0	2,970
Pelices (sheep-skin).....	308	5 0 0	1,540
Scented waters ..... demijohns	53	1 0 0	53
Sail-cloth ..... bales	21	1 0 0	420
Cordage and cables ..... coils	87	10 0 0	870
Sundries	..	. . .	1,500
Total.....			£410,648

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM GALATZ, BY SEA, IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat..... qrs.	173,797	£0 23 0	£199,866
Indian corn.....	258,763	0 18 0	232,887
Rye.....	60,617	0 14 0	42,432
Barley.....	741	0 10 0	370
Linseed.....	1,521	0 27 0	2,053
Rapeseed.....	350	0 22 0	385
Tallow and chervice..... cwt.	3,052	0 36 0	5,494
Preserved meat in tin canisters .. lbs.	1,104,536	0 0 3	13,806
Ox hides..... pcs.	20	0 7 0	7
Wool..... lbs.	24,000	0 0 8	800
Wine..... galls.	106,750	0 1 0	5,337
Walnuts ..... cwt.	2,543	0 5 0	636
Prunes.....	1,552	0 5 0	388
Honey	108	0 25 0	135
Planks and deals..... pieces	664,319	0 0 4	11,071
Masts and spars .... rafts	20	600 0 0	12,000
Salt (rock)..... cwt.	5,400	0 2 6	675
Total.....			£528,342

DESTINATION OF VESSELS FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Destination.	No of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Constantinople.....	276	56,247	71,391	11,296	2,572
England	164	47,405	163,671	3,182	....
Trieste.....	71	24,790	9,529	38,511	....
Marseilles.....	27	17,220	5,328	5,265	480
Genoa	17	17,473	.....	1,050	....
Leghorn.....	8	6,328	.....	840	....
Cefalonia.....	9	3,500	3,357	573	....
Malta.....	6	834	5,487	....	....
Odessa*	10	.....	.....	....	....
Total.....	588	173,797	258,763	60,717	3,052

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTED, LOADED, FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Nation.	No of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Greeks.....	197	54,222	108,645	35,854	350
Turkish	81	5,028	4,257	6	392
English	76	28,776	49,111	3,192	....
Russian.....	65	12,980	20,172	4,002	1,544
Austrian.....	59	25,619	45,310	6,833	....
Sardinian.....	33	25,982	4,827	3,874	....
Wallachian.....	22	3,732	7,326	.....	286

* Wine, 106,750 gallons; walnuts, 2,543 cwt.; prunes, 1,552 cwt.; honey, 108 cwt.; deals, 1,800 pieces.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Rye. Qrs.	Tallow. Cwt.
Ionian	21	7,457	8,586	3,095	....
Samian	16	3,453	2,878	2,769	....
French	7	1,179	3,235	.....	480
Moldavian	4	273	3,201	.....	....
Tuscan	3	2,632	....	.....	....
Roman	2	....	1,215	1,092	....
Prussian	1	1,087	....	.....	....
Swedish	1	1,377	....	.....	....
Total	588	173,797	258,763	60,717	3,052

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO IBRAILA UP THE DANUBE IN 1849, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures, cotton twist, British...pkgs.	3,558	£40 0 0	£142,320
Manufactures, Turkish	78	30 0 0	2,340
Cotton yarn, Turkish .....sacks	20	15 0 0	300
Sugar, refined and crushed.....casks, &c.	5,010	20 0 0	100,200
Sugar, candied.....cases	78	3 0 0	234
Tea	6	10 0 0	60
Chocolate	1	5 0 0	5
Coffee .....bags & casks	1,797	4 0 0	7,188
Pepper .....bags	921	0 30 0	1,381
Cloves and other spices .....cases	59	7 0 0	413
Rum ....bbls.	511	7 0 0	3,577
Tin in bars.....cwt.	134	5 0 0	670
Tin plates.....cases	1,265	2 0 0	2,530
Iron in bars, rods, and sheets.....tons	4,074	12 0 0	48,888
Steel.....cases	19	3 0 0	57
Nails .....bbls.	24	1 10 0	36
Lead.....pigs	375	0 16 0	291
Iron safes and machines.....pieces	77	10 0 0	747
Tar and pitch.....bbls.	541	0 15 0	406
Rosin.....	2	0 30 0	3
Alum.....	316	0 40 0	632
Coals .....tons	336	0 25 0	420
Saltpeter.....bbls.	87	0 80 0	348
Sulphur.....	8	0 30 0	12
Vitriol and copperas.....	700	0 50 0	1,750
Logwood.....pieces	1,308	0 2 0	131
Cochineal.....cases	4	15 0 0	60
Soap..... .....cwt.	1,768	0 35 0	3,094
Oil.....	10,938	0 40 0	21,876
Oil.....cases	352	0 25 0	440
Olives.....skins & bbls.	4,632	0 15 0	3,474
Wine.....bbls.	23	4 0 0	92
Porter.....	40	2 0 0	80
Champagne and other wines. .....cases	455	5 0 0	2,275
Raisins.....bbls.	1,555	2 0 0	3,110
Raisins .....cases	6,679	0 8 0	2,672
Figs.....bbls.	1,180	1 0 0	1,180
Figs.....cases	1,262	0 8 0	505
Lemons.....bbls.	32	0 30 0	48
Lemons.....cases	1,116	0 10 0	558
Oranges.....	940	0 15 0	705
Almonds.....bbls.	123	2 0 0	246
Dates..... ..	34	4 0 0	136
Filberts.....	49	0 15 0	37
Locusts, or carubs.....cwt.	1,750	0 5 0	438
Halva.....cases	72	0 10 0	36
Pine seeds.....bbls.	2	2 0 0	4

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Chick peas	63	3 0 0	189
Rice ...bags	772	1 0 0	772
Tobacco ...cwt.	2,372	5 0 0	11,860
Caviar black ...casks	146	60 0 0	8,760
Caviar red	91	12 0 0	1,092
Tunny Fish ...bbls.	198	4 0 0	792
Scombro (salt fish)	147	0 25 0	184
Sardines	375	0 30 0	563
Polipa	58	10 0 0	580
Ciri ...thousand	17	0 12 0	10
Capers ...bbls.	114	4 0 0	456
Aniseed	176	5 0 0	880
Incense	137	5 0 0	685
Chairs ...doz.	120	3 0 0	360
Furniture ...cases	13	5 0 0	65
Earthenware ...crates	207	3 0 0	921
China ...cases	8	10 0 0	80
Isinglass	5	10 0 0	50
Paste	33	0 18 0	30
Paper	16	5 0 0	80
Ink ...bbls.	14	1 0 0	14
Window-glass ...boxes	1,566	0 15 0	1,175
Looking-glass ...cases	6	10 0 0	60
Paint ...bbls.	81	0 15 0	61
Mastic	139	2 0 0	278
Blacking	6	4 0 0	24
Turpentine	2	2 0 0	4
Bottles (empty) ...pieces	8,500	0 0 3	106
Dressed leather ...bundles	211	10 0 0	2,110
Laurel berries ...baskets	5	0 16 0	4
Medicine ...cases	20	10 0 0	200
Malta stones ...pieces	2,000	0 0 6	50
Zambils	350	0 0 6	21
Brooms	2,700	0 0 4	45
Total			£388,596

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM ISBAILA BY SEA IN 1849, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value
Wheat ...quarters	117,346	20s. 0	£117,346
Indian corn	332,532	16 0	266,026
Barley	72,936	9 0	32,821
Millet	364	10 0	182
Kidney Beans	23	30 0	35
Linseed	438	32 0	702
Rapeseed	1.411	26 0	1,834
Wool ...lbs.	1,411,751	0 8	47,058
Tallow and Chervice ...cwt.	38,132	36 0	68,638
Butter, or Mantecca	1,507	40 0	3,014
Cheese, or Caskaval	2,793	13 0	1,815
Pastroma, or Jerk Beef	1;455	10 0	727
Potash	171	16 0	137
Ox hides ...pieces	562	1 0	28
Staves	2,648,239	0 4	44,137
Ropes	2,500	0 8	125
Planks	18,321	0 4	305
Total			£584,930

DESTINATION OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF SAME IN 1849.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Linseed. Qrs.	Wool. Lbs.	Staves. Pieces.
Constantinople*	344	84,546	110,599	70,236	....	167,813	.....
England.†	133	4,655	168,161	2,700	164	29,155	.....
Trieste	55	11,551	46,595	.....	....	.....	.....
Marseilles	46	12,127	1,976	.....	274	251,146	2,648,239
Leghorn	3	3,949	.....	.....	....	.....	.....
Malta	2	.....	2,450	.....	....	.....	.....
Anversa	2	518	....	.....	....	173,899	.....
Ionian Islands	1	...	1,224	.....	....	.....	.....
Hamburg	1	...	1,527	.....	....	.....	.....
Total	587	117,346	332,532	72,936	438	622,013	2,648,239

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME IN 1849.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qrs.	Indian corn. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Greek‡	250	61,832	139,818	11,475	300,556	27,953	1,494,331
Turkish.§	120	27,103	13,457	51,743	.....	3,116	120,000
Austrian	74	10,082	87,309	.....	120,780	.....	84,110
English‖	53	1,186	54,866	.....	29,155	.....	.....
Russian	31	7,425	11,662	5,011	.....	2,319	65,460
Wallachian¶	19	4,151	7,999	2,007	.....	4,744	.....
Sardinian	11	....	4,153	1,143	.....	.....	427,920
Ionian	10	4,989	3,267	.....	.....	.....	66,000
French**	6	....	4,187	....	39,432	.....	.....
Roman	5	....	884	.....	.....	.....	287,044
Mecklenburg	3	34	1,377	1,557	132,090	.....	.....
Samian	2	594	1,215	....	.....	.....	.....
Moldavian	1	....	....	.....	.....	.....	103,374
Belgian	1	....	1,528	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hanoverian	1	....	1,285	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	587	117,346	332,532	72,936	622,013	38,132	2,648,239

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO GALATZ, UP THE DANUBE, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Twist—British ....pkgs.	3,344	£55 00	£183,920
Manufactures—not British	250	30 00	7,500
Cotton Yarn—Turkish	79	15 00	1,185
Sugar, refined and crushed.....casks & bbls.	5,619	15 00	84,285
Coffee.....bags & bbls.	1,877	4 00	7,508
Pepper.....bags	1,175	0 80	1,762
Pimento	66	0 40	134
Cloves and other spices .....pkgs.	111	7 00	777
Rum.....hhds. & bbls.	1,689	7 00	11,823
Tin in bars and ingots.... .....cwts.	196	5 00	980
Tin plates.....boxes	3,041	2 00	6,082
Iron, in bars, rods, and sheets .....tons	2,460	9 00	22,140
Steel..... .....bbls. & cases.	66	3 00	198
Hardware	14	10 00	140

* Tallow, 38,132 cwt.; Ox hides, 562 pieces; rope, 2,500 pieces; cheese, 2,793 cwt.; jerk beef, 1,455 cwt.; butter, 1,507 cwt.; millet, 364 qrs.; potash, 171 cwt.; planks, 18,321 pieces; Kidney beans, 23 qrs.; rapeseed, 9 qrs.

† Rapeseed, 1,402 qrs.

‡ Ox hides, 562 pieces; ropes, 2,500 pieces; cheese, 4,667 cwt.; pastroma, 1,221 cwt.; butter, 1,099 cwt.

§ Cheese, 589 cwt.; pastroma, 188 cwt.; planks, 18,321 pieces; butter, 190 cwt.; millet, 364 qrs.; Kidney beans, 12 qrs.; rapeseed, 9 qrs.

‖ Linseed, 164 qrs.; rapeseed, 1,402 qrs.

¶ Cheese, 507 cwt.; butter, 218 cwt.; potash, 110 cwt.; Kidney beans, 11 qrs.

** Linseed. 274 qrs.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Nails ..... bbls.	543	0 30	814
Lead ..... pigs	145	0 16	116
Lead shot ..... cwt.	134	0 50	335
Tar and pitch ..... bbls.	2,222	0 15	1,666
Alum	64	0 40	128
Coals ..... tons	7,434	0 25	9,292
Saltpeter ..... bbls.	63	0 80	252
Vitrol and copperas	159	0 50	397
Logwood ..... cwt.	812	0 8	325
Indigo ..... chests	22	80 00	1,760
Cochineal ..... cerrons	15	20 00	300
Cotton wool, Levant ..... bales	833	10 00	8,330
Soap ..... cwt.	1,650	0 35	2,888
Oil, olives	5,208	0 40	10,416
Olives ..... skins & bbls.	1,419	0 15	1,064
Wine ..... bbls.	300	4 00	1,200
Do. Champagne and other ..... cases	809	5 00	4,045
Porter ..... bbls.	224	3 00	672
Raisins	2,674	0 40	5,348
Raisins ..... drums	14,400	0 8	5,760
Figs	4,415	0 8	1,766
Figs ..... bbls.	975	0 20	975
Lemons and oranges ..... bbls. & cases	4,785	0 20	4,785
Almons ..... bbls.	137	0 40	274
Filberts	355	0 15	266
Dates	81	0 80	324
Chestnuts	51	0 15	38
Chick peas	140	0 60	420
Locusts or carubs ..... cwt.	7,508	0 5	1,877
Halva ..... bbls. & drums	1,512	0 10	756
Rice ..... cwt.	4,832	0 20	4,832
Tobacco	1,836	5 00	9,180
Caviar, black ..... casks	36	60 00	2,160
Caviar, red ..... bbls.	185	12 00	2,220
Sardines	411	0 30	612
Fish, salt	645	0 20	645
Polipe	35	20 00	700
Ciri, (dried fish ..... mille	158	0 12	95
Aniseed ..... bbls.	14	5 00	70
Incense ..... cases	144	5 00	720
Mastic	6	2 00	12
Galls ..... barrels	22	15 00	330
Macaroni ..... cwt.	496	0 25	620
Furniture ..... pkgs.	144	10 00	1,440
Chairs ..... doz.	303	3 00	909
Paint ..... bbls.	8	2 00	16
Earthenware ..... casks & crates	270	5 00	1,350
Window glass ..... cases	318	2 00	636
Books	32	5 00	160
Paper, writing	32	5 00	160
Paper, for cigars	248	0 40	496
Lemon juice ..... bbls.	77	11 00	847
Dressed leather ..... bales	438	10 00	4,380
Cigars ..... boxes	19	3 00	57
Abba, or coarse cloth ..... bales	228	10 00	2,280
Pelices, (sheep skin)	162	5 00	810
Scented water ..... demijohns	6	0 20	6
Sail cloth ..... bales	24	20 00	480
Cordage and cables ..... coils	229	10 00	2,290
Sundries	....	.....	1,500
Total value			£435,090

NOTE OF IMPORTATIONS INTO IBRAILA, UP THE DANUBE, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Manufactures—Cotton twist, British..pkgs.	4,140	£55 00 0	£227,700
Manufactures, Turkish.....	97	30 00 0	2,910
Cotton yarn and cotton wool, Turkish..sacks	1,060	15 00 0	15,900
Sugar, refined and crushed.....casks, &c.	5,557	20 00 0	111,140
Coffee..... bags & bbls.	1,240	4 00 0	4,960
Tea.....cases	8	10 00 0	80
Pepper..... bags	1,070	0 30 0	1,605
Cloves and other spices.....cases	100	7 00 0	700
Rum..... bbls.	1,185	7 00 0	8,155
Tin, in bars.....cwt.	52	5 00 0	260
Tin plates.....cases	2,539	2 00 0	5,078
Iron, in bars, rods, and sheets .....tons	1,932	9 00 0	17,388
Steel.....cases	26	0 60 0	78
Nails..... bbls.	148	0 30 0	222
Lead..... .....pigs	42	0 16 0	34
Lead shot..... casks	99	0 50 0	248
Copper, sheet..... ....cases	27	10 00 0	270
Copper wire	9	10 00 0	90
Tar and pitch .....bbls.	528	0 15 0	396
Alum.....	990	0 40 0	1,980
Saltpeter	138	0 80 0	552
Vitrol and copperas.....	868	0 50 0	2,170
Sulphur.....cases	76	0 30 0	114
Tartaric acid .....bbls.	3	5 00 0	15
Nitric acid.....	5	5 00 0	25
Camphor... ..... cases	1	10 .00 0	10
Logwood.....pieces	2,903	0 2 0	290
Indigo.....cases	1	80 00 0	80
Cochineal.....	1	15 00 0	15
Coals..... tons	175	0 25 0	219
Soap.....cwt.	619	0 35 0	1,083
Oil.....	6,019	0 40 0	12,038
Oil .....cases	343	0 10 0	172
Olives..... skins & bbls.	3,948	0 15 0	2,961
Wine .....bbls.	211	4 00 0	844
Champagne and other wine.....cases	1,037	5 00 0	5,185
Raisins.....bbls.	1,925	0 40 0	3,850
Raisins .....cases	1,609	0 8 0	644
Figs.....bbls.	831	0 20 0	831
Figs... .....cases	1,020	0 8 0	408
Lemons and oranges.....bbls. & cases	856	0 20 0	856
Almonds.... .....bbls.	120	0 40 0	240
Filberts	58	0 15 0	44
Dates.....	10	0 80 0	40
Peaches, dried.....baskets	10	5 00 0	50
Locusts, or carubs ....cwt.	1,380	0 5 0	345
Halva.....cases	60	0 10 0	30
Pineseed.....bbls.	90	0 40 0	180
Chick peas	151	0 60 0	453
Rahat	2	5 00 0	10
Tobacco..... cwt.	1,489	5 00 0	7,445
Caviar, black..... .....bbls.	75	60 00 0	4,500
Caviar, red	92	0 20 0	92
Sardines.....	158	0 30 0	237
Scombre.....	283	0 25 0	354
Tunny fish.....	289	0 80 0	1,156
Polips	47	10 00 0	470
Aniseed.....	73	5 00 0	365
Fennelseed.....	14	3 00 0	42
Rice .....bags	199	0 20 0	199
Incense .....bbls.	145	5 00 0	725

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Rosin	100	3 00 0	300
Chairs	doz. 132	3 00 0	396
Earthenware	crates 358	5 00 0	1,790
Window glass	boxes 8,710	0 15 0	6,533
Looking glass	cases 6	10 00 0	60
Paper	90	5 00 0	450
Paint	bbls. 53	0 15 0	40
Mastic	44	2 00 0	88
Bottles, empty	baskets 147	0 20 0	147
Iron beds	pieces 13	4 00 0	52
Iron safes	9	10 00 0	90
Leather, dressed	bundles 422	10 00 0	4,220
Bath bricks	bbls. 3	2 00 0	6
Bricks	mille 15	0 20 0	15
Porter	bbls. 276	0 40 0	552
Blacking	1	0 80 0	4
Pickles	cases 20	0 30 0	30
Ink	bbls. 3	0 20 0	3
Paste	cases 14	0 18 0	13
Medicine	7	10 00 0	70
Cigars	1	10 00 0	10
Empty jars	pieces 187	0 10 0	94
Pipe bowls	cases 8	0 20 0	8
Gall nuts	bbls. 2	5 00 0	10
Zambils, (hand baskets)	pieces 2,220	0 00 6	56
Brooms	2,695	0 00 4	45
Total value			£463,615

DESTINATION OF VESSELS FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME, IN 1850.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Quarters.	Ind. Corn. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Tallow. Cwt.
Constantinople*	162	28,779	29,322	6,162	9,201
United Kingdom†	133	78,871	82,810	3,897	164
Trieste and Venice‡	43	768	2,622	41,826	1,275
Marseilles§	14	11,251	3,828	....	....
Genoa	8	7,590	....	....	....
Leghorn	11	11,398	....	....	....
Antwerp	3	....	2,502	891	....
Malta	3	1,011	1,791	....	....
Ionian Islands‖	1	984	....	....	....
Odessa and Kertch	13	....	....	....	....
Total	391	140,652	122,875	52,776	10,640

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM GALATZ, BY SEA, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat quarters	140,652	£00 23 0	£160,750
Indian corn	122,875	00 18 0	110,588
Rye	52,776	00 14 0	36,943
Linseed	366	00 27 0	494
Tallow and chervice cwt.	10,640	00 35 0	18,620
Preserved meats, in tin canisters lbs.	1,291,000	00 00 3	16,137
Wool	9,600	00 00 8	320
Cattle bones tons	396	00 35 0	693

* Rafts of masts, 14; deals and planks, 403,579; rafters, 28,806; salt, 1,250 cwt.
† Bones, 396 tons; preserved meats 44,99 boxes, and 53,375 canisters.
‡ Linseed, 80 quarters.
§ Linseed, 286 quarters.
‖ Wine, 393 casks; walnuts, 1,214 bags; prunes, 1, 361 bbls.; planks and deals, 1,546; Rafters 686; Carriages, &c., 31, from Vienna.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value
Wine.....galls.	78,600	00 1 0	3,930
Walnuts.....cwt.	1,214	00 5 0	303
Prunes.....	1,891	00 5 0	473
Planks and deals.....pieces	417,018	00 00 4	6,950
Rafters.....	29,429	00 2 0	2,943
Masts and spars.....rafts	14	600 00 0	8,400
Rock salt.....cwt.	1,250	00 2 6	156
Total value.....			£367,700

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTED LOADED FROM GALATZ, AND CARGOES OF SAME, IN 1850.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Quarters.	Ind. Corn. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Tallow Cwt.
Greeks*	117	56,804	38,501	20,503	8,725
Turkish†	77	1,636	16,475	1,730	....
English‡.....	50	28,624	22,506	696	164
Austrian§.....	40	13,404	14,343	17,622	1,275
Russian‖.....	33	7,348	3,912	4,038	....
Wallachian and Moldavian¶.....	25	7,575	8,202	2,580	476
Sardinian**	21	15,244	1,899	1,818	....
Ionian.....	8	3,618	2,343	711	....
German.....	12	4,215	11,343	810	....
Swedish	2	....	660	1,377	....
Tuscan.....	2	1,110	1,404	....	....
Belgian	1	....	....	891	....
French††.....	1	....	....	....	....
Roman	1	1,074	....	....	....
Serbian.....	1	....	1,287	....	....
Total.....	391	140,552	122,875	52,776	10,640

NOTE OF EXPORTS FROM IBRAILA, BY SEA, IN 1850, IN ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES AND VALUE OF THE SAME IN STERLING, FREE ON BOARD.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.	Total value.
Wheat.....quarters	283,290	10s. 0d.	£269,026
Indian Corn.....	149,734	15 6	116,044
Barley.....	44,593	9 0	20,167
Millet	68	10 0	34
Kidney beans	383	30 0	496
Linseed.....	398	32 0	62
Rapeseed	1,200	26 0	1,560
Yellow berries	120	30 0	180
Wool, unwashed.....lbs.	205,520	00 8	6,851
Tallow.....cwt.	25,460	35 0	44,555
Butter, or mantecca.....	690	40 0	1,380
Cheese, or caskaval.....	1,722	13 0	1,119
Pastroma, or jerk beef	1,243	10 0	622
Prunes.....	657	5 0	164
Honey.....	71	35 0	124
Potash.....	540	16 0	432
Ox hides ..... pieces	355	10 0	178
Ropes	3,200	00 8	107
Staves.....	527,281	00 4	8,788
Bones.....tons	82	30 0	123
Total value.....			£472,012

* Planks, 64,669 pieces; deals, 42,135; bones, 396 tons.
† Planks, 170,610 pieces; deals, 101,675; rafters, 12,510; mast rafts, 14.
‡ Preserved beef, 41,512 canisters.
§ Preserved beef, 4,499 boxes, 11,864 canisters; wool, 66 bales.
‖ Linseed, 80 quarters; planks, 33,439; wine, 98,000 galls.; walnuts, 1,214 bags; prunes, 1,264 lbs.
¶ Rafters, 16,296; deals, 24,460 pieces.
** Wool, 48 bales; linseed, 313 quarters.
†† Linseed, 286 quarters.

DESTINATION OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME, IN 1850.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qr.	Ind. Corn. Qr.	Barley. Qr.	Linseed. Qr.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Constantinople*..	285	127,230	60,694	42,320	...	.....	25,460	.....
England	120	83,113	64,055	2,273	...	.....	....	.....
Trieste	61	44,282	21,528	....	...	.....	....	.....
Marseilles†.....	25	15,066	....	....	398	205,520	....	527,281
Leghorn	10	12,004	1,103	....	...	.....	....	.....
Genoa.....	2	1,595	....	....	...	.....	....	.....
Malta.....	1	.....	1,083	....	...	.....	....	.....
Madeira	1	.....	1,271	....	...	.....	....	.....
Total.....	505	283,290	149,731	44,593	398	205,520	25,460	527,281

NOTE OF VESSELS DEPARTING LOADED FROM IBRAILA, AND CARGOES OF THE SAME, IN 1850.

Nation.	No. of vessels.	Wheat. Qr.	Ind. Corn. Qr.	Barley. Qr.	Linseed. Qr.	Wool. Lbs.	Tallow. Cwt.	Staves. Pieces.
Greek‡.....	202	143,061	53,476	5,747	...	205,520	12,942	186,332
Turkish§.....	100	25,225	18,682	32,224	...	.....	1,089	70,110
English.....	56	35,957	29,576	2,272	...	.....	....	.....
Austrian‖	53	27,475	29,990	....	...	.....	....	50,000
Wallachian¶.....	21	9,151	3,246	1,957	...	.....	4,806	.....
Russian**.....	20	11,034	1,888	583	...	.....	3,060	131,449
Ionian††.....	15	8,705	2,218	808	...	.....	1,765	.....
Sardinian	13	10,368	2,318	....	...	.....	....	.....
Samian‡‡.....	8	3,706	1,543	992	...	.....	1,798	.....
Prussian.....	6	3,566	3,094	....	...	.....	....	.....
French	4	697	....	....	398	.....	....	89,390
Roman	2	2,025	....	....	...	.....	...	.....
Swedish.....	2	1,539	....	....	...	.....	....	.....
Mecklenburg.....	1	....	1,746	....	...	.....	....	.....
Moldavian	1	....	1,957	....	...	.....	....	.....
Hanoverian	1	781	....	....	...	.....	....	.....
Total.....	505	283,290	149,734	44,593	398	205,520	25,460	527,281

NOTE OF ALL VESSELS DEPARTING FROM GALATZ AND IBRAILA, WITH REGISTER TONNAGE AND NUMBER OF CREW, IN 1850.

	GALATZ.			IBRAILA.			TOTAL.		
Nation.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.
Greek.....	117	1,175	21,152	202	2,089	36,980	319	3,264	58,132
Turkish ...	75	714	14,195	100	952	15,543	175	1,666	29,738
English....	50	415	10,583	56	478	9,596	106	893	20,179
Austrian...	40	432	8,324	53	540	10,305	93	972	18,629
Wallachian.	17	184	2,957	21	159	2,836	38	343	5,793
Russian ...	33	205	3,842	20	186	3,479	53	391	7,321
Ionian.....	8	78	1,398	15	118	2,091	23	191	3,489
Sardinian..	21	198	3,182	13	121	1,944	34	319	5,126
Samian....	2	16	275	8	73	1,091	10	89	1,366
Prussian...	5	46	1,001	6	48	921	11	94	1,922

* Butter, 690 cwt.; cheese, 1,722 cwt.; potash, 540 cwt.; yellow berries, 120 quarters; hides, 355 pieces; kidney beans, 333 quarters; millet, 68 quarters; pastroma, 1,243 cwt.; prunes, 657 cwt.; honey, 71 cwt.; rapeseed, 1,200 quarters.

† Yellow berries, 120 cwt.; bones, 82 tons.

‡ Potash, 260 cwt.; yellow berries, 120 cwt.; hides, 355 pieces; cheese, 1,097 cwt.; butter, 250 cwt.; kidney beans, 83 quarters; jerk beef, 494 cwt.; prunes, 125 cwt.; honey, 71 cwt.; millet, 68 quarters; bones, 82 quarters.

§ Potash, 192 cwt.; kidney beans, 41 quarters; pastroma, 93 cwt.; prunes, 77 cwt.

‖ Rapeseed. 1,200 quarters.

¶ Potash, 88 cwt.; cheese, 199 cwt.; butter, 186 cwt.; kidney beans, 128 quarters; pastroma, 256 cwt.; prunes, 261 cwt.

** Cheese, 90 cwt.; butter, 54 cwt.; kidney beans, 27 quarters; pastroma, 331 cwt.; prunes, 196 cwt.

†† Cheese, 291 cwt.; kidney beans, 38 quarters; pastroma, 69 cwt.

‡‡ Cheese, 45 cwt.; kidney beans, 16 quarters.

Nation.	GALATZ. No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	IBRAILA. No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.	TOTAL. No. of vessels.	No. of crew.	Register tonnage.
French....	1	10	147	4	38	491	5	48	638
Roman....	1	12	205	2	21	356	3	33	561
Swedish...	2	13	259	2	11	231	4	24	490
Mecklenb'rg	5	43	974	1	9	250	6	52	1,224
Moldavian..	8	86	1,683	1	12	280	9	98	1,963
Hanoverian.	1	6	108	1	5	93	2	11	202
Tuscan....	2	24	477	.	.	...	2	24	477
Hamburger.	1	7	132	.	.	...	1	7	132
Belgian ...	1	10	184	.	.	...	1	10	184
Serbian ...	1	12	240	.	.	...	1	12	240
Total ...	391	3,681	71,318	505	4,855	86,488	896	8,536	157,806

In the preceding report on the Commerce of the Danube, mention has been made of the passage of Sulina, the most important, if not, indeed, the only navigable mouth of this river. The "Journal de Constantinople," under date of May 9, 1852, publishes the following note of the number of vessels which passed Sulina during the previous year, and as it brings down the navigation to a more recent period than is embraced in the report, occasion is taken to add the note to the same:—

VESSELS WHICH PASSED SULINA IN 1851.

Nation.	Loaded.	In ballast.	Total.	Sailed out.	Nativity.	Loaded.	In ballast.	Total.	Sailed out.
English	60	246	306	305	Oldenburger.....	1	6	7	8
Austrian	8	146	154	147	Prussian.....	11	11	22	25
Belgian	.	1	1	1	Reuni.....	.	1	1	3
Bremen	.	7	7	5	Russian	3	110	113	104
Danish.....	.	3	3	2	Sardinian.....	19	76	95	91
French.....	3	8	11	12	Swedish.....	6	6	12	12
Greek.....	39	745	784	773	Tuscan.....	.	3	3	4
Hanoverian.....	1	1	2	6	Ottoman.....	.	613	613	457
Holland.....	.	1	1	3	Do. Moldavian...	2	22	24	23
Ionian.....	7	75	82	69	Do. Wallachian..	3	104	107	88
Lubecker.....	.	1	1	1	Do. Samian.....	1	16	17	4
Mecklenburger ..	4	7	11	6	Do. Jerusalem...	.	2	2	2
Neapolitan.....	.	4	4	3					
Norwegian.....	2	4	6	5	Total	170	2,219	2,389	2,159

Among the vessels arrived in the Danube in 1851, there were 97 in ballast destined to Russian ports of the Danube, and 2,292 for foreign ports. There passed also 43 steamers under Austrian colors; the number of Russian steamers, if any, have not been indicated; nor are the English screw steamers mentioned, which is to be regretted, as these latter have commenced running from England direct to the ports of the Danube for the purpose of making quicker passages than the sailing vessels. Their cargoes are generally wheat and Indian corn, which commodities, it is here worthy of remark, can be carried to England, as thus appears, cheaper from the Danube in screw steamers than they can be taken from the United States to English ports in American sailing vessels. Among the ships which entered the Danube in 1851, 8 were wrecked in the river, and of those which left it, 2 were lost.

The report adds that the cargoes of the vessels which entered the Danube are not known at Sulina. Those sailing out of it had the following articles as cargoes, all products of the Danube:—

Wheat, 869,713 Tchetwarts, of 5 95-100 bushels each.
Rye, 123,943 " " "
Barley, 113,836 " " "
Indian corn, 1,320,591 " " "
Beans, 376 " " "
Flour, 33 " " "
Linseed, 1,150 " " "
Cheese, 1,150 pounds, 244 sack.
Suet, 166,526 pounds, 310 bour., 394 barrels.
Smoked and salted meats, 142 sacks.
Raw hides, 30 tons.
Bones, 1 cargo, and 380 tons.
Candles, 5 cases.
Planks and beams, 514,510 pieces.
Staves, 199,000 pieces.
Oak timber, 6,500 pieces.
Rafts of timber, 14.
Castings, 1 cargo.

The note from which the preceding is taken, says that in 1850 1,152 vessels entered the Danube, (at Sulina,) and that 1,380 left it; consequently the number was greater than in 1851. The value of the cargoes of 1851 was not given, but comparatively with those of 1850, the quantity of grain was greater by 900,000 tchetwarts; the Indian corn and rye figure largely in the note, the former being mostly exported from Galatz and Ibraila, whilst the exports from the ports of Ismail and Reuni form only one-fifth of the whole quantity. It is worthy of remark, that whilst during the past year (1851) the exportation of grain from Odessa, in South Russia, has been less than in 1850, that of the ports of the Danube and of the two principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, as well as of Bessarabia, has been greater in 1851 than in 1850, which is readily seen by the number of the vessels being almost double.

In terminating the present report of the trade of one of the greatest rivers of Europe—indeed, of the world—it may not be wholly without utility to add a price current, of a recent date, of grain at Constantinople, where the prices of the grains do not differ much from those of the ports of the Danube. Under date of May 14, 1852, the "Journal de Constantinople" publishes the following:—

Wheat (hard) of	Azof, the kilat of 55 lbs.....piastres	20½ to	21
Wheat "	Bessarabia.....	20½	21
Wheat "	Roowdy.....	18	18½
Wheat "	Galatz.....	19	19½
Wheat "	Odessa.....	20	20½
Wheat (soft)	Ibrail.....	15	16
Wheat "	Galatz.....	18	18½
Wheat "	Roowdy.....	17½	18
Indian corn of	Roowdy.....	12½	12½
Indian corn of	Bessarabia.....	13	13½
Indian corn of	Ibraila.....	12	12½
Indian corn of	Galatz.....	13	13½
Barley of	Ibraila.....	9½	9½
Rye of the	Crimea.....	11½	12
Oats	.....	6½	7

The Turkish government sustains the exchange on London at piastres 110 though the free exchange is much greater, say piastres 116 in specie, and piastres 120 in the Sultan's paper currency, called Caïméhs. The piastre is worth in specie about 4½ cents, and in Caïméhs 3 per cent more. J. P. B.

Art. III.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XXXIII.

NEW YORK.—PART II.

POPULATION—ABSOLUTE PROGRESS.

THE amount of the population of New York at various intervals since its foundation, as furnished by the estimates and enumerations of the earlier period, and later by the official returns of the census, periodically taken under the authority of the State and of the United States—the numerical increase between the consecutive periods—with the actual ratio for such times, and the corresponding ratio for decennial terms, where the interval is more or less than ten years—are embraced in the following statement:—

Years.	Population.	Numerical increase.	Ratio of increase.	Decennial ratio.
1656.....	1,000	.....	....	....
1678....	2,500	1,500	150.0	88.2
1696.....	4,302	1,802	72.0	31.3
1731.....	8,628	4,326	100.6	28.8
1756.....	10,381	1,753	20.3	8.1
1773.....	21,876	11,495	133.2	78.4
1776, estimated	26,000	4,000	20.0	66.6
1786.....	23,614	2,400 dec.	10.0	10.0
1790....	33,131	9,517	40.3	100.8
1800.....	60,489	27,358	82.6	82.6
1805.....	75,770	15,281	25.3	50.6
1810.....	96,373	20,603	27.2	54.4
1814.....	92,448	3,925 dec.	4.1	10.2
1816.....	100,619	8,171	8.8	44.0
1820.....	123,706	23,087	23.0	58.0
1825.....	166,086	42,380	34.2	68.4
1830.....	202,589	36,503	22.0	44.0
1835.....	270,089	67,500	33 3	66.6
1840.....	312,710	42,621	15.8	31.6
1845.....	371,223	58,513	18.7	37.4
1850.....	515,545	144,322	39.0	78.0

The average ratio, according to this table, for each decennial period from 1656 to 1850 is about 40 per cent. The progress has been steadily ahead throughout, except in two instances, occurring when the United States was at war with Great Britain. Several unfavorable causes, of very potential influence, have also tended to check the ratio of other periods. The growth of the period 1673–96 must have been limited very sensibly by the French and Indian War of 1689–97; and that of the interval 1731–56, when there was the least ratio in any period of actual advance, was in like manner affected by the mortality and alarm consequent on the yellow fever in 1741–2, the Negro panic of the same years, the great fire of 1741, the second French War, of 1744–48, and the commencement of the third, in 1754. The growth of New York at this period was probably somewhat retarded, also, by the advance of the other colonies, which were drawing an enlarged proportion of the European emigration. Boston and Philadelphia, the latter previously behind New York, were now both ahead of her, and growing faster. If we had statements of the population at regular and very brief intervals for the century preceding the Revolution, there would undoubtedly be seen one or two cases of actual decline, but only in periods of very short duration; probably, as afterwards, in none of so much as ten, and perhaps not in any of above five years' length.

In the tables which follow, we have estimated the population of the city in quinquennial periods during the time embraced in the table preceding, and upon the ratios respectively attached to the periods therein designated. The figures are so arranged as to present also a distinct view of the decennial periods. In the succeeding tables, the progress by consecutive quarter, half, and entire centuries is also given, and a view of like periods calculated from the successive decennial intervals. Also, a comparative exhibit of the Dutch, English, and American periods, and of the periods preceding and succeeding the Constitution of the United States:—

DECENNIAL AND QUINQUENNIAL PERIODS.

Years.	Population.		Years.	Population.	
1660	1,350		1760	13,000	
1665		1,800	1765		16,500
1670	2,250		1770	19,809	
1675		2,650	1775		25,000
1680	3,050		1780	25,000	
1685		3,450	1785		22,000
1690	3,800		1790	33,131	
1695		4,225	1795		46,800
1700	4,800		1800	60,489	
1705		5,400	1805		75,770
1710	6,000		1810	96,373	
1715		6,650	1815		90,000
1720	7,200		1820	123,706	
1725		8,000	1825		166,086
1730	8,400		1830	202,589	
1735		8,900	1835		270,089
1740	9,150		1840	312,710	
1745		9,600	1845		371,223
1750	9,850		1850	515,545	
1755		10,300			

QUARTER CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equival't.
1675–1700.	2,150	81	324
1700–1725.	3,200	67	268
1725–1750.	1,850	23	92
1750–1775.	15,000	152	608
1775–1800.	35,500	142	568
1800–1825.	195,597	175	700
1825–1850.	349,459	210	840
Average ratio.....		118	452

QUINQUENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

1660–1685.	2,100	156	624
1665–1690.	2,000	111	444
1670–1695.	2,000	88	352
1675–1700.	2,150	81	324
1680–1705.	2,350	77	308
1685–1710.	2,550	74	296
1690–1715.	2,850	75	300
1695–1720.	3,000	71	284
1700–1725.	3,200	67	268
1705–1730.	3,000	55	222
1710–1735.	2,900	48	192
1715–1740.	2,500	38	152
1720–1745.	2,400	33	132

QUINQUENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equival't.
1725–1750.	1,850	23	92
1730–1755.	1,900	23	92
1735–1760.	4,100	46	184
1740–1765.	7,300	80	320
1745–1770.	10,200	106	425
1750–1775.	15,000	152	608
1755–1780.	15,000	145	580
1760–1785.	9,000	69	277
1765–1790.	16,600	100	401
1770–1795.	27,000	142	568
1775–1800.	35,500	142	568
1780–1805.	50,700	203	812
1785–1810.	74,400	348	1,392
1790–1815.	57,000	173	693
1795–1820.	77,000	164	658
1800–1825–	105,597	175	700
1805–1830.	126,819	167	668
1810–1835.	173,716	180	720
1815–1840.	222,700	247	992
1820–1845.	247,517	200	800
1825–1850.	349,459	210	840
Average ratio.....		120	480

HALF CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equival't.
1650–1700.	3,800	380	760
1700–1750.	5,050	105	210
1750–1800.	50,700	515	1,030
1800–1850.	455,056	752	1,504
Average ratio.....		438	876

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equival't.
1650–1700.	3,800	380	760
1660–1710.	4,650	340	690
1670–1720.	4,950	220	440
1680–1730.	5,350	110	220
1690–1740.	5,350	141	282

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equival't.
1700–1750.	5,050	105	110
1710–1760.	7,000	116	232
1720–1770.	12,600	175	350
1730–1780.	16,600	198	396
1740–1790.	24,000	262	524
1750–1800.	50,700	515	1,030
1760–1810.	83,400	642	1,282
1770–1820.	104,000	530	1,060
1780–1830.	177,600	710	1,420
1790–1840.	279,579	843	1,686
1800–1850.	455,066	752	1,504
Average ratio.....		378	756

CENTURIES.

CONSECUTIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.
1650–1750	9,000	900
1750–1850	505,700	5,134
Average ratio.....		3,016

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.
1650–1750	9,000	900
1660–1760	11,650	863
1670–1770	17,500	780
1680–1780	22,000	721

DECENNIALLY PROGRESSIVE.

Periods.	Increase.	Ratio.
1690–1790	29,300	771
1700–1800	55,700	1,160
1710–1810	90,400	1,500
1720–1820	116,500	1,618
1730–1830	194,000	2,310
1740–1840	303,500	3,317
1750–1850	505,700	5,134
Average ratio..... ...		1,734

DUTCH, ENGLISH, AND AMERICAN PERIODS.

	Periods.	Population at close.	Increase.	Ratio.	Decennial equivalent.
Dutch	1613–1664	1,700	1,700	....	....
English	1664–1786	23,614	22,000	1,200	1,000
American	1786–1850	515,545	491,931	2,083	3,411

BEFORE AND AFTER THE UNITED STATES CONSTITUTION.

	Periods.	Population at close.	Increase.	Ratio.	Centennial equivalent
Before.....	1613–1790	33,131	33,131	....	....
After.....	1790–1850	515,545	482,414	1,456	2,427

The division into decennial periods, it will be observed, has the effect to obliterate the irregularities existing in the first table, so that a constant advance in the population is apparent throughout. It is certain that there has been *no period of ten years'* length, since the year 1756, in which the result of population has not been *forward*. The decennial and quinquennial periods give us also a better idea of the slowness of the progress made in population previous to that time, as compared with the movement subsequently. The largest increment is in the *last* period of each kind, but it has not, in all, the largest proportionate ratio—the periods of largest and smallest ratio, (or largest ratio of loss,) were as follows :—

		High'st.	Low'st.
Quinquennial, (since first U. S. census,)	1790–1795...	41.0	
	1810–1815 (loss)....		66.0
Decennial, do.	1790–1800...	82.6	
	1810–1820.....		28.4
Quart'r cent'ry.	1785–1810	348.0	
	1725–1750.....		23.0
Half century..	1800–1850	762.0	
	1700–1750.....		105.0
Century.....	1750–1850	5,134.0	
	1680–1780.....		721.0

PROGRESS OF THE WARDS—SECTIONS.

The following table exhibits the advance of population in the several wards of the city since 1825:—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I.....	9,929	11,331	10,380	10,629	12,230	19,754
II.....	9,315	8,202	7,549	6,394	6,962	6,655
III.....	10,201	9,599	10,884	11,581	11,900	10,355
IV.....	12,210	12,705	15,489	15,770	21,000	23,250
V.....	15,093	17,722	19,495	19,159	20,362	22,668
VI.....	20,061	13,570	16,827	17,198	19,343	24,699
VII.....	14,192	15,873	21,481	22,982	25,502	32,690
VIII.....	24,285	20,729	28,570	29,073	30,846	34,612
IX.....	10,956	22,810	20,618	24,795	30,907	40,657
X.....	23,932	16,438	20,926	29,026	20,993	23,316
XI.....	7,844	14,915	26,845	17,052	27,259	43,758
XII.....	7,938	11,808	24,437	11,652	13,378	10,451
XIII*.....	.....	12,598	17,130	18,517	22,411	28,246
XIV.....	.....	14,288	17,306	20,235	21,103	15,196
XV.....	.....	.....	13,208	17,755	19,432	22,564
XVI.....	.....	.....	.....	22,273	40,337	52,882
XVII.....	.....	.....	.....	18,619	27,147	43,763
XVIII.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	31,546
XIX.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18,465
Total.....	166,086	202,589	270,089	312,710	371,223	515,545

This table exhibits the progress of the *up-town* movement, much the largest portion of the increase, at each census, with an increasing increment, being in that section. In the Second Ward, it will be seen, there has been an actual falling off from 1825; and the Third stands at almost the same point as at that period. This is the result of the increase of business in these localities, requiring additional room. The great increase of the First Ward is caused only by its becoming, within a few years, in one part of it, a depôt for poor emigrants. Although the numbers in this ward may not vary more, within a given period, than in other wards, yet it is not to be regarded as having a *fixed* population, as the emigrants are continually moving from it, new forces being always at hand to fill the places of the re-migrating. The increase of the Fourth Ward has been mainly of emigrants, also, but of another class, being mostly all mechanics in well-paid employments. The comparison of the increase of several of the lower wards with the rest of the city, is as follows:—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I. to VI.	76,809	73,129	79,574	80,781	91,497	107,399
Rest of wards	89,277	128,460	190,515	231,979	279,426	408,056
Excess, rest of city..	12,472	56,331	110,741	151,248	187,929	300,657
I. to VI., VIII., XIV ...	101,094	108,146	125,450	130,039	143,746	167,207
Rest of wards	64,994	94,443	144,639	182,731	227,477	348,248
Excess, lower.....	36,100	13,703	.....	.....	.....	.....
Excess, upper.....	.....	.....	19,189	52,692	83,731	181,041

* The 13th ward was taken from the 10th, and the 14th from the 6th and 8th wards in 1826; the 15th from the 9th in 1832; the 16th from the 12th, 1836; the 17th from the 11th, 1837; the 18th from the 16th, 1846; the 19th from the 12th.

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
I. to VIII., XIV	115,286	124,019	146,931	153,021	169,248	201,819
Rest of wards	50,800	78,570	123,158	159,689	201,975	313,636
Excess, lower.....	64,486	45,449	2,373	.....	.....	.....
Excess, upper.....	.....	.....	.....	6,668	32,733	111,817
I. to VIII., X., XIII., XIV.	139,218	153,055	184,987	200,564	212,652	253,381
Rest of wards	26,868	49,534	85,102	112,146	158,571	262,074
Excess, lower.....	112,350	103,821	99,885	88,418	54,081	.....
Excess, upper.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,693

The division formed by taking separately the first six wards is on a line nearly formed by Catharine and Canal streets. The statement of wards I. to VI., VIII., and XIV., against the rest of the city, shows the population at the several times, below and above a line formed by Catharine-street, the Bowery, Houston and Hammersley streets. The next statement shows the population below and above the line of Grand, Division, Bowery, Houston, and Hammersley. The last division is that formed by the line of Rivington, Bowery, Houston, and Hammersley. The distance from the Battery to Canal-street is about one mile-and-a-quarter, and to Houston-street one mile-and-three-quarters. The average width below Canal-street cannot be over a mile, and below Houston it is about a mile-and-a-half. The first six wards contained, in 1825, near one-half the population of the city—now they have only *one-fifth* the whole number. The second division, which contained two-thirds in 1825, has not less than one-third the whole population. Above Rivington and Houston in 1825, there were only 26,868, about one-sixth the population—now ten times that number, and more than half the city live above that line. The following statement shows the increase above the line of Fourteenth-street since 1825 :—

Wards.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
XII.....	7,938	11,808	24,437	11,652	13,378	10,451
XVI.....	....	.....	.....	22,273	40,337	52,882
XVIII.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	31,546
XIX.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18,465
Above 14th-st..	7,938	11,808	24,437	33,925	53,715	113,344
Increase.....	....	3,870	12,629	9,488	19,790	59,629
Do. of city	....	36,503	67,500	42,621	58,513	144,232

The following gives a view of the progressive population of the eastern and western sections of the city, excepting the narrow district below Liberty-street, which, being cut off at that point by a crosswise line into a single ward, (the First,) we are unable to divide. The balance, from its division, would be in favor of the western section. The wards embraced in this calculation are the 3d, 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th, 14th, and 15th in the western section, and the 2d, 4th, 7th, 10th, 11th, 13th, and 17th in the eastern—the line of division being along Broadway, Chatham, and the Bowery :—

	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.
Western section.	80,596	98,718	125,902	139,796	153,893	180,769
Eastern section.	66,993	80,731	109,370	128,360	141,812	201,678
Exc. of western.	13,603	17,987	16,532	11,436	12,081	.....
Exc. of eastern.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,907

COMPARISON WITH OTHER CITIES OF UNITED STATES.

Boston and Philadelphia both at a former period exceeded New York in the amount of population. The following is a comparative statement of the progress of the three together with that of Baltimore, the four oldest, as well as the four largest cities of the Union—from the earliest periods, and a comparison of New York with the other three united :—

Years.	New York.	Philadelphia.	Boston.	Baltimore.	Three cities.	New York's per cent of the three.
1680 ab't.	3,000	.....	4,500	.....	.....	....
1690 ab't.	3,800	.....	7,000	.....	.....	....
1696.....	4,302	.....	....	.....	.....	....
1700 ab't.	4,800	.....	6,700	.....	.....	....
1730.....	8,628	.....	13,000	.....	.....	....
1750 ab't.	9,800	7,635	15,731	.....	.....	....
1756.....	10,381	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
1760 ab't.	13,000	.....	15,520	.....	.....	....
1773.....	21,876	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
1776.....	.....	.....	2,719	.....	.....	....
1777.....	.....	23,734	.....	.....	.....	....
1780.....	.....	.....	10,000	.....	.....	....
1785.....	23,614	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
1790.....	33,131	42,520	18,038	13,503	74,061	44.7
1800.....	60,489	81,005	24,297	26,514	131,816	45.9
1810.....	96,373	111,210	35,250	46,455	192,915	50.0
1820.....	123,706	137,097	43,298	62,738	243,133	51.0
1830.....	202,589	188,961	61,392	80,620	330,973	61.2
1840.....	312,710	258,037	93,383	102,513	453,933	68.9
1850.....	515,545	408,815	138,788	189,048	734,734	70.2

The comparison of New York with all the other towns and cities of the United States containing above ten thousand inhabitants, in the years 1820, 1830, 1840, and 1850, is presented in the following statement :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Towns above 10,000	343,376	592,754	1,017,227	2,316,611
Do. excluding Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.....	123,015	289,310	615,951	1,581,877
New York.....	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

The towns and cities embraced in this statement, besides the four chief cities, were, in 1820, eight; namely, Portland, Salem, Providence, Albany, Pittsburg, Richmond, Washington, and New Orleans. In 1830, there were sixteen; in 1840, twenty-seven; in 1850, sixty-five. All the towns and cities above 10,000 in 1840 were—

Boston.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
Portland.	Albany.	Norfolk.
Lowell.	Rochester.	Charleston.
Salem.	Troy.	Savannah.
New Bedford.	Buffalo.	Mobile.
Charleston.	Utica.	New Orleans.
Springfield.	Newark.	Louisville.
Providence.	Pittsburg.	St. Louis.
New Haven.	Richmond.	Cincinnati.
Brooklyn.	Petersburg.	Washington.

and their comparison, aggregately, with New York, for four decennial periods, is as follows :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
31 towns.....	570,110	878,300	1,329,937	1,796,256
Do excluding Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.....	326,817	547,327	876,004	1,061,522
New York.....	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

By which it will be seen that over the combined increase of those 27 towns, New York has advanced from about 30 to near 50 per cent of their population.

In the following statement is given the comparison of New York with all the towns of the various sections of the Union above 10,000.

Maryland and the Distaict of Columbia are assigned to the south-eastern section, Alabama is made a south-western, and Missouri a north-western State—this being the most natural division. The towns above ten thousand equal New York in no instance in any other section than the middle :—

	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
New England	66,411	114,842	215,166	446,452
Middle States	141,955	251,602	394,818	969,732
South-Eastern States	99,585	145,201	184,997	354,243
South-Western States	27,178	56,278	136,075	224,268
North Western States	.....	24,831	86,171	296,925
Pacific Region	.....	.....	.....	25,000
New York City	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,545

We next give a comparison of New York with all the towns in the United States of between 2,000 and 10,000 inhabitants, in 1840, and with all the town population of the United States, in places of above 2,000, at the same period :—

POPULATION OF TOWNS.

	Between 2,000 and 10,000.		Above 2,000.	
New England	147 towns.	574,767	156 towns.	789,933
Middle States	60 "	198,587	69 "	906,115
South-Eastern States	21 "	98,982	28 "	307,343
South-Western States	12 "	41,752	15 "	177,827
North-Western States	20 "	87,502	21 "	140,309
New York	.....	.....	.....	312,710

From which it appears that the whole town population of New England was only about double the population of the city of New York; that of the Middle States treble, and that of the whole six South-western and five North-Western States only equal.

In the comparison here made of New York with other cities of the United States, we have included only the population actually resident within her limits, while for Philadelphia the amount stated includes the great population of her suburbs. The cities and villages immediately around New York may as fairly be considered portions of herself, as the suburban population of Philadelphia, or of any other city, may be included in its census. The connections with these places by steamboat is so complete, and the communication so constant and great, that the rivers and bay seem scarcely to afford any separation. Estimating these appendages New York has a population of not less than 650,000.

COMPARISON WITH STATES.

There were, in 1790, sixteen States, all of them exceeding the city of New York in population. The State to which the latter approached nearest was Tennessee, which had 35,791, New York having 33,131. Of no other State, excepting Delaware, which had 59,096, did it reach the proportion of one-half. The comparative progress of the city and the States is seen in the statements following :—

POPULATION OF NEW YORK AND SEVERAL OF THE STATES AT EACH CENSUS FROM 1790.

Years.	New York city.	Maine.	New Hampshire.	N. York State.	Delaware.	Ohio.
1790....	33,131	96,540	141,899	340,120	59,096	.....
1800....	60,489	151,719	183,762	586,756	64,273	45,365
1810....	96,373	228,705	214,360	959,049	72,614	230,760
1820....	123,706	298,335	244,161	1,372,812	72,749	581,434
1830....	202,589	399,455	268,328	1,918,608	76,748	937,903
1840....	312,710	501,793	284,574	2,428,921	78,085	1,519,467
1850....	515,545	583,188	317,964	3,097,394	91,535	1,980,408

At present, New York exceeds fourteen of the States; namely, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and California; and if we refer only to white population, we may add five other States, Maryland, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and at the present time, no doubt (two years since the census of 1850) North Carolina and Missouri—or 21 out of the 31 States—only ten States exceeding New York city in white population. Of the white population of the smaller of these States, New York is very nearly equal to the following combinations :—

Arkansas	126,071	Arkansas	126,071
Delaware	71,888	Delaware	71,888
Florida	47,120	Florida	47,120
Texas	133,131	Texas	133,131
Rhode Island	144,012	South Carolina	254,271
Total	522,222	Total	632,481
Louisiana	254,271	Delaware	91,535
South Carolina	274,775	Florida	87,401
		Rhode Island	147,544
Total	529,046	Iowa	192,214
		Total	518,694

The *increase* of population in the different States of the Union, in each decennial period, as compared to that of New York city, and in the whole period from 1790 to 1850, has been as follows :—

	1790–1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1790–1850.
New York city.	27,358	35,884	27,333	78,883	110,121	202,797	482,414
STATES EXCEEDING NEW YORK'S INCREASE.							
Maine.....	55,179	74,986	69,630	101,120	.....	.....	486,648
N. Hampshire.	41,863	.....	29,801	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	69,049	63,248	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts.	44,528	48,795	51,247	87,121	127,291	256,800	615,782
New York....	246,636	373,193	413,763	545,796	510,313	668,473	2,757,274
New Jersey...	27,810	.....	32,020	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania .	167,992	207,726	239,367	278,755	375,800	587,753	1,877,413
Maryland.....	.....	38,998	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Virginia.....	131,892	94,422	90,757	146,026	.....	.....	673,353
N. Carolina....	84,533	77,397	83,329	99,158	.....	.....	.....
S. Carolina ...	96,518	64,524	87,626	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia.....	79,553	90,332	88,554	175,836	174,569	214,607	823,451
Alabama.....	.....	.....	.....	165,210	281,229	.....	771,671
Mississippi....	.....	.....	35,096	.....	239,030	230,904	606,555
Louisiana.....	.....	.....	76,851	.....	186,672	.....	511,974
Tennessee	69,811	156,125	161,086	259,091	147,306	.....	966,834
Kentucky.....	147,218	185,556	157,806	122,600	.....	.....	909,328
Ohio.....	.....	185,395	350,674	356,469	581,564	460,941	1,980,408
Indiana	.....	.....	122,658	195,653	342,835	302,550	988,416
Illinois.....	.....	.....	42,929	102,254	318,788	375,287	851,470
Michigan.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	180,628	.....	.....

	1790–1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1790–1800.
Missouri.....	.....	.....	45,741	.....	243,247	298,341	682,043
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	274,246	.....
New York city.	27,858	35,884	27,333	78,883	110,121	202,797	482,414
STATES BELOW NEW YORK'S INCREASE.							
Maine.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	99,996	81,895	.....
N. Hampshire.	.....	30,598	.....	25,167	15,246	33,390	176,065
Vermont	.....	.....	18,051	44,888	11,296	22,172	229,004
Connecticut...	12,861	11,040	13,160	22,463	12,333	60,813	132,650
Rhode Island..	12	7,909	6,028	14,140	11,631	32,714	76,434
New Jersey...	.....	33,606	.....	43,248	52,483	116,249	315,416
Delaware	5,177	8,401	75	8,999	1,337	13,450	32,439
Maryland.....	21,820	.....	26,804	36,690	22,979	113,016	263,307
Virginia.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28,392	181,864	.....
N. Carolina....	.....	.....	.....	.....	15,432	115,484	475,152
S. Carolina ...	.....	.....	.....	78,444	13,213	74,109	419,434
Florida.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	87,401
Alabama.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	180,915	.....
Mississippi....	.....	31,502	.....	61,173	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana.....	.....	.....	.....	62,332	.....	159,563	.....
Tennessee.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	173,415	.....
Kentucky	.....	.....	.....	.....	91,911	202,577	.....
Indiana	.....	19,645	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan.....	.....	.....	4,134	22,743	.....	185,387	397,654
Missouri.....	.....	.....	.....	73,869	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	305,191
Iowa.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	149,102	192,214
Arkansas.....	.....	.....	.....	16,115	67,186	112,165	209,639

From the foregoing table it appears that the numerical increase of thirteen States, from 1790 to 1800, was decidedly larger than that of the city of New York—that of only four States being less. In the next decennial period, 1800–10, the increase of thirteen was larger, and of seven smaller; from 1810 to 1820, the increase of eighteen was larger, and six smaller; in the fourth period, 1820–30, the increase of thirteen States was larger, and thirteen less; fifth period, 1830–1840, there were thirteen States having a larger, and fourteen a smaller increase; and in the sixth period, 1840–50, the increase of but ten States equalled that of New York, and nineteen fell behind. Only four States, (three beside New York,) Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Georgia, exhibit in each period from 1790 a larger increase than New York city; and of the States admitted since that period, only Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois have attained as large increments of gain. On the other hand, six States—Connecticut, Rhode Island, Delaware, Florida, Arkansas, and Iowa have in no one period had an increase equal to that of New York. Maryland, Michigan, and Wisconsin have had an equivalent increase in only one instance each, and New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Alabama, and Louisiana in but two of the six periods. In the general result, if Texas were counted, (of whose population we have no statement back of 1850,) fifteen States have made a larger increase in population since the adoption of the government than the city of New York, and fifteen have fallen behind. Of the "Old Thirteen" nine are in the latter class.

RATIO OF GROWTH COMPARED TO STATES AND TO UNITED STATES.

The ratio of growth of New York, as compared to that of several of the States, sections, and of the United States, in the decennial periods from 1790, have been as follows:—

	New York city.	Maine.	Connecticut.	N. Y. State.	Virginia.	Ohio.	North-west section.	S.-west section.	United States.
1790–1800....	82.6	57.1	5.4	72.5	17.6	....	....	208.1	35.0
1800–1810....	59.3	50.7	4.3	63.4	10.7	408.7	442.0	160.3	36.4
1810–1820....	28.4	30.4	5.0	48.1	9.3	152.0	191.1	76.7	33.3
1820–1830....	63.8	38.9	8.1	39.7	13.7	61.3	85.4	54.6	33.2
1830–1840....	54.3	26.2	4.1	26.6	2.3	62.0	101.9	54.8	32.7
1840–1850....	64.8	16.1	19.6	27.5	14.7	30.3	59.1	47.8	36.2
1790–1850...	1,456.0	504.0	56.0	810.7	90.0	4,265.0	9,291.0	4,350.0	491.5
Average....	58.9	35.7	7.7	45.5	11.4	142.9	155.9	97.0	34.5

It will be noticed herein, that while those States, which commenced with a very high ratio, have, in consequence of the growing magnitude of the base on which that ratio is computed, suffered a great decline in that respect, New York still maintains her ratio. So New York is constantly gaining upon the States, and is growing proportionately larger constantly toward the whole United States. The latter fact is made more evident in the following statement of the per centage of the population of New York at the different periods, and of the United States at corresponding dates:—

1790	0.84	1830	1.58
1800	1.14	1840	1.68
1810	1.33	1850	2.22
1820	1.28		

In comparing the city of New York with the States of the Union, it may be remarked that the city is not only equal to several in population and wealth, but is much more powerful, and has, although possessed independently of municipal powers only, much greater elements of *nationality* than many of them, even among the more populous. She could maintain a far more respectable position as an independent nation than could above three quarters of the States, singly. Some of the most memorable nations of antiquity were only great cities, having no country region, or but an insignificant and unproductive patch of territory.

COMPARISON TO FOREIGN CITIES.

The only cities of the world which equal or exceed New York in population are those here named:—

IN EUROPE.		IN ASIA.	
London, (with suburbs)....	2,363,141	Pekin, (China).....	3,000,000
Paris.....	1,035,000	Suchon "	2,000,000
St. Petersburg.....	535,000	Nankin "	2,000,000
Constantinople.....	550,000	Canton "	1,000,000
		Fuchau Fu, (China).....	600,000
		Miaco, (Japan).....	600,000
		Calcutta, (Hindostan)	650,000
		Benares "	600,000
		Surat "	600,000

In Europe, no other city beyond the four named is much above half as large as New York. Of the cities of Asia, the accounts are, in some cases, rather apocryphal. The Orientals have never been remarkable for their devotion to statistical subjects. They would be more likely to resort to imagination, a faculty which they are reputed to keep as a worker of all service, for what information they might desire on the matter, than to go to the drudgery of taking actual enumerations. Their princes would be satisfied with a general survey of their realms, giving them an approximate idea of

the extent of territory and density of population. Had they full statistical information, few of them would have any idea of its use, and therefore could not be expected to seek it. The population of Asiatic cities and countries is undoubtedly overestimated, yet it is certain that Asia has the largest cities in the world.

PERIOD OF DUPLICATION.

The population of New York has progressively doubled upon itself at about the periods named below:—

Numbers.	Years.	Intervals.	Numbers.	Years.	Intervals.
515,545 reached in.	1850	..	8,055 about.....	1725	40 years.
257,772 about....	1834	16 years.	4,027 "	1692	33 "
128,886 "	1820	14 "	2,013 "	1668	24 "
64,443 " ...	1801	19 "	1,056 "	1656	12 "
32,221 "	1790	11 "			—
16,110 "	1765	25 "	Average period.....		21½ "

If we take the period from 1790, New York has within that time doubled *four* times, making the average period fifteen years. From 1800, the period of duplication is once in 16½ years. The following is a comparison with the duplicative periods of other cities, States, sections, and of the United States. The statement as to the latter and all places within it, relates to their progress since 1800, excepting Cincinnati, Louisville, and Buffalo:—

	Years.		Years.
New York	15	Washington	14
Boston.....	20½	Charleston	33
Philadelphia.....	22	Albany.....	13½
Baltimore.....	20	Buffalo.....	8½
Cincinnati	6½	New York State	19
New Orleans	15	Virginia.....	70
St. Louis.....	10	New England.....	45
Brooklyn.....	9	North-West	7
Pittsburg.....	7½	United States.....	23½
Louisville.....	8	London, (about).....	40

Art. IV.—THE BLASTING OF ROCKS UNDER WATER WITHOUT DRILLING.

NEW YORK, August 10, 1852.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

DEAR SIR:—We take great and sincere pleasure in sending you the following communication relative to the new method of BLASTING ROCKS UNDER WATER WITHOUT DRILLING, which was invented by Mr. MAILLEFERT, and for about one year has been most successfully practiced in this country.

This communication will, as soon as possible, be followed by another, relative to the REMOVAL OF BARS IN AND AT THE MOUTH OF RIVERS BY DRAGGING, a method which, in many instances, has been most successfully applied in Europe, and is destined to be extensively used in this country.

We feel very much gratified for the room which you were pleased to offer us for these communications in the columns of your highly estimated Magazine, the name of which is the very best introduction to an intelligent class of readers.

When Mr. Maillefert first presented his plans for the removal of those dangerous

rocks in Hell-Gate, which for centuries past had been a terror to navigators, he had patiently to submit to the doubts and objections raised from all sides, and even to the far more discouraging ridicule, which some persons thought proper to throw over his contemplated operations.

A strong conviction and a good deal of energy upheld, however, his courage, and carried him through a severe trial to a complete triumph.

A trip to Hell-Gate on one of the many beautiful steamers that are daily running through a passage which bore its name but too properly, will now be sufficient to convince even the most skeptical.

They will not any more find that terrible whirlpool which made them hold their breath in anxiety and awe, until they got safely out of it—none of those foaming eddies, which it seemed impossible to avoid. However strong may have been their doubts, they will gladly acknowledge that a wonderful change has taken place, that if they had not known Hell-Gate before, they should not be able to comprehend how it could be thus denominated, and that the few and harmless eddies that yet remain seem to be placed there rather to improve the scenery, and perhaps with a view of recalling to the mind of those who are too quick in forgetting what Hell-Gate was a year ago, and what it will never be again. Hell-Gate has lost its terrors, and may be made the best and safest entrance to the harbor of New York, if the necessary means be found to continue operations which, from the very outset, have given such beautiful and important results.

You will, in the following communication, find a short account of the progress of the operations in Hell-Gate up to the present day; the difference between Mr. Maillefert's method of blasting rocks under water, and those hitherto used; what may be expected from it; its peculiar advantages and applications towards the improvement of our rivers, harbors, and maritime thoroughfares.

We feel it our duty, in submitting the following communication to your readers, to apologize for the foreignisms it may contain, and which we trust they will kindly excuse, in consideration of our sincere endeavor to contribute our share to the development of the immense resources of this great and hospitable country.

We have the honor to be, dear sir, with high and sincere respect,

Your very obd't serv'ts,

B. MAILLEFERT, W. RAASLOFF, } Submarine Engineers.

THE blasting of rocks under water without drilling for which Mr. Maillefert has taken out a patent, dated the 2d of March, 1852, is an invention which is intimately connected with the general desire for improvements in rivers, harbors, and maritime thoroughfares. We do not, however, intend to say, that this invention has been directly called forth by that desire, for such is not the case; but we feel convinced that nothing short of a general and strong feeling in favor of such improvements could have prevailed upon private individuals to furnish the pecuniary assistance which was requisite in order to give a fair trial to an invention, which, at the outset, met with so many doubts and objections, and had to encounter an almost general incredulity.

The trial has been most successful throughout, and has been carried out to an extent which at once secures to the invention a prominent place among the operations to be used for the improvement of our maritime highways.

Notwithstanding the difficulties and delays always and unavoidably attending experiments, the most remarkable results have been obtained.

The first submarine charge was fired by Mr. Maillefert on Pot Rock, in

Hell-Gate, the 19th of August, 1851, and from that day the operations have been continued in that difficult and dangerous thoroughfare, being interrupted only during the severest frost, and during Mr. Maillefert's illness consequent upon an accident which happened the 26th of March last.

It will be necessary, for a just appreciation of the magnitude of the undertaking, and of the difficulties with which these operations were attended, to give a short description of the character of this thoroughfare, and the dangers to navigation arising from the crookedness and narrowness of the channel, the violence of the currents, and the great number of sunken and visible rocks which obstruct it.

The very picturesque appearance which Hell-Gate bore in former times, and which it derived from the whirlpool called the Pot, the violent agitation of the water rushing through it, the foaming eddies indicating the existence of the dangerous sunken rocks, has inspired Cooper with some of his most thrilling descriptions of maritime scenery and daring sea-adventures.

A more sober and business-like description than those which the great American romancer has given us in the "Red Rover," and in the "Water-Witch," are to be found in some able and lucid reports from Lieuts. Com. C. F. Davis and D. D. Porter,* from which we will give some of the prominent passages.

Lieut. Davis states in his report as follows :—

"Of the sailing vessels that enter the Hurl-Gate passage, it is estimated that one in fifty sustains more or less injury by being forced by the violence of the currents on the rocks or shoals; and the accident to the Oregon, which nearly proved fatal to her passengers, shows that even steamboats, with a motive power that keeps them under perfect control, and guided by the most experienced pilots, are not secure from peril.

"Such an improvement in the channels of Hurl-Gate as would render them navigable to vessels of all classes under common circumstances, would supply to the Commerce of New York a new outlet to the sea—one in a different direction from the harbor channels, and available when those were temporarily closed by adverse winds or other causes—and would therefore be a permanent and valuable resource both for those vessels outward bound and for those returning home.

"But a still more serious consideration is that of the increased facilities for naval defense which this improvement would afford. In the event of a rupture with a naval power, there can be no doubt that the attempt in the last war to ravage the shores of Long Island Sound, and to prey upon its domestic Commerce, will be repeated. The means of resisting or preventing such hostilities must be drawn chiefly from New York; and if the Hurl-Gate passage be made secure, not only our largest men-of-war, but our steamboats of a superior class, which, on such occasions, would be armed for the purpose of defence, would be at once enabled to hasten to the scene of danger.

"The steamboats are now constantly passing through Hurl-Gate; but the difficulties of the passage would to them be seriously increased if they were pressed down by a naval armament and equipped for action.

"During the war with Great Britain *our frigates were blockaded in the harbor of New York*, which could not have been the case if the Hurl-Gate passage had been open. Commodore Decatur ventured to carry his squadron through, but with such risk that the attempt with a frigate was only made once afterwards, notwithstanding the constantly recurring necessity.

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* Rep., made by Lieut. Com. C. F. Davis, of survey of Hurl-Gate channel, and communicated to the Chamber of Commerce of the city of New York, by Prof. A. D. Bache, Supt. U. S. Coast Survey, dated February 15 1848, and report made by Lieut. Com. D. D. Porter, etc., communicated by Prof. A. D. Bache, Supt. U. S. C. S., to Eben Merlam, for the use of the Chamber of Commerce of New York, dated October 30, 1848.

"The removal, therefore, of the obstructions to the safe navigation of Hurl-Gate, is recommended by a regard to the future naval defenses of the country.

"The dangers in this channel arise from the great strength of the current, and the number and position of the rocks and reefs. The strength of the current is such that sailing vessels can only stem its force or escape from it by a commanding breeze; but as the main course of the flood tide keeps the middle of the eastern channel, it is most secure for vessels which are coming from the westward, with the tide, to place themselves in the center of the stream, and follow its direction. They are thus carried through in safety. This plan, however, is inadmissible for any but small vessels, on account of two rocks, the 'Pot,' and the 'Frying Pan,' which lie in or very near the mid-channel, are in the way both going to the eastward and westward, and have but little water on them at low tide. There is also a reef called Way's Reef, which lies in the course followed by the steamboats principally when coming from the eastward against a strong flood. It is their custom to keep close around Pot Cove, and run up under Hallet's Point; by so doing they avoid the strength of the flood. In this part they find an eddy current in their favor.

"But in the ebb the greatest danger arises from the divergence of the current at a point marked (A) on the sketch, where the ebb tide branches off into three directions to take the course of the three channels; the main south channel, the middle channel, and the eastern channel.

"The safe navigation depends here upon deciding sufficiently soon at the point of separation which channel shall be taken; and the neglect to do this, or a loss of control over the vessel for any reason, frequently results in being carried on the Gridiron.

"When a vessel that has attempted the eastern channel finds herself carried towards the Gridiron, her only chance for safety is to run for the middle channel, which is narrow, and made precarious by the middle reef, the outer rock of which is the Negro Head.

"The Gridiron is, owing to the strong set of tide on it, the most dangerous reef in the passage.

"The reef known as the 'Bread and Cheese,' on the eastern end of Blackwell's Island, is also very dangerous. Vessels are liable to go on it on the flood when it is covered, by getting into the eddy near it, with a light wind. The chief danger is on the ebb, and from the same cause as that which makes the Gridiron dangerous, *i. e.*, the strong set of tide in that direction." * * * *New York Municipal Gazette, p.* 886.

Lieut. Porter states as follows:—

"It was my intention to have made you a full report on the subject, but a copy of the report of Lieut. Charles H. Davis, on Hell-Gate, was sent to me to-day, and I find it so full and correct in all its details, that I could say but little more without incurring the charge of plagiarism; in fact, the opinions expressed by Lieut. Davis, coincide with those I had formed previous to reading his report, and it only remains for me to point out the dangers I have noticed while surveying here, and which have escaped his attention. I have also had a better opportunity of measuring the size and shape of the rocks than he had, and herewith give a description of them.

"The first in order, and the principal obstruction in Hell-Gate, is 'Pot Rock,' on which I found eight feet of water at the lowest tides. * * *

"At half tides the depth of water does not increase on 'Pot Rock,' as there is at least a fall of four feet, and a vessel drawing over eight feet must strike upon it it. A full rigged brig struck it three days since, and went down with a valuable cargo on board. This obstruction once removed, Hell-Gate would be less dangerous by one-half, and the eddies, which are now the cause of half the difficulties, would, in a measure, disappear. * * *

"There is a dangerous rock, called 'Bald-headed Billy,' fifteen yards from Hatter's Dock, which is dry at low water, and 'brings up' a number of vessels at high water. Three vessels struck upon this rock while I was at Hell-Gate: one we got off with some difficulty; another lost bowsprit, anchors, and chains. * * *

"Opposite 'Gibb's Point,' and within fifty yards of Blackwell's Island, is a large rock, which I have called 'Blackwell's Rock.' The current sets directly upon it with the flood tide, and it is a most dangerous obstruction. It is six feet out of water at low tide, and could be removed at small expense.

"The 'Frying Pan' rock is a ledge running north and south, and is a part of the chain of rocks which which runs from 'Hog's Back' to 'Hallet's Point. This rock removed, vessels would always drift through the main ship channel. The difficulties of removing it would be much greater than any other rock in the Gate, as it is so difficult to hit upon it.

"There is a small rock, though a very dangerous one, to the southward of Woolsey's Bath-House. It extends about fifty yards out into the channel, and is connected with the shore line at low water. * * *

"In a place where the interests of so many are at stake, the want of attention to the navigation of Hell-Gate appears like culpable neglect. No one can form an idea of the number of vessels that go on shore during the course of a month; eighteen went on shore during the period I was occupied there, (two months,) and many of them were very much injured. I am convinced that if proper measures were taken to protect the commercial interests of this great city, by blasting the rocks mentioned above, and docking it as proposed by Lieut. Davis, not one vessel would be lost in five years." * * * *N. Y. Municipal Gazette, pp.* 886, 887.

It will easily be understood that the operations in a thoroughfare like the one described, and through which more than three hundred vessels have been passing in a single day, were attended with various and peculiar difficulties, which hardly could be found in any other locality.

Pot Rock, the most dangerous of the sunken rocks, rose in the middle of the channel, from a depth of from fifty to eighty feet, to within eight feet below the surface (at mean low water). It was formed as a ledge, stretching across the Gate so as to present its broad side to the current; the western slope rose pretty gradually, but the eastern side was steep, and even overhanging. At a depth of twenty-four feet below the surface, this formidable rock had a length of about two hundred and fifty feet, and an extreme width of seventy-five feet; its upper part was prismatical, and its top had an area of only some few square yards.

On that side of the rock which turned towards the current, the waters were forced several feet above their natural level, and on the other side of it there was a corresponding depression—the consequence of which was a very dangerous whirlpool of considerable extent, and bordered with foaming eddies.

The violent agitation of the water above and around Pot Rock, and the wild roar which accompanied it, was exactly such as if some sea monster were struggling in agony, vainly attempting to reach the surface of the water. When the tide was running, Pot Rock could not even be approached in a small boat, and the only available time for sounding the rock, or for blasting it, was during slack water, when the tide had ceased running one way, and until it commenced running in the opposite direction. But owing to the situation and character of the channel, slack water lasted only some few, never beyond ten minutes, and the operations were therefore confined to that limited space of time.

It is evident that, under such circumstances, no other mode of operation than the one invented by Mr. Maillefert could possibly be made use of.

It was not only entirely impracticable to fix any apparatus for drilling upon Pot Rock, but even the mooring of a vessel or float on or near the spot, and during the tide, could not be seriously contemplated.

In the beginning of the operations, not more than two or three charges

could be fired per day; many days were entirely lost, the weather being unfavorable, and others had to be devoted to surveying operations, which also could be effected only during slack water, and in very favorable weather.

But all these difficulties were overcome, the work was gradually progressing, and a survey made on the 7th of November by Lieut. Bartlett, U. S. N., showed a depth of not less than *eighteen feet three inches*, at low water, on any part of Pot Rock. This result had been obtained in the course of two-and-a-half months, by the firing of one hundred and forty-three charges. A great improvement had then already taken place in the appearance of Hell-Gate. The whirlpool had entirely disappeared, and the eddies were almost reduced to mere ripples.

It had also, at that time, become evident that the removal of rocks by Mr. Maillefert's method was not only possible, but also very expeditious, and attended with proportionally small expense.

Although the season was then very much advanced, the operations were continued on Pot Rock, and commenced on several of the other most dangerous rocks. Among these, the "Frying Pan" offered almost the same difficulties as "Pot Rock," being situated in the middle of the channel, where the tide sometimes turned within two or three minutes.

The operations were thus continued until the 12th of December, when the very cold weather compelled Mr. Maillefert to suspend work until the 2d of February, 1852.

Pot Rock had then been broken down to *nineteen* feet below mean low water.

"Bald-headed Billy," a large and dangerous boulder, had been removed to deep water. Lieut. W. A. Bartlett, U. S. N., Ass. U. S. Coast Survey, states the following, in relation to this latter operation. "By accurate measurement of this 'boulder,' after a submarine explosion had dislodged it from its bed, it was found to be sixteen feet long, ten feet wide, and eight feet deep; and as it was too heavy to be floated whole, it was then split by drilling, and the two parts separately floated away to deep water, being lifted by the iron cylinder floats at high water."

Two other dangerous rocks, opposite Mr. Edwin Hoit's mansion, also had been removed to deep water. On one of these rocks a vessel was wrecked shortly after the commencement of the operations in Hell-Gate.

Several charges had been fired on "Frying Pan," "Way's Reef," and "Diamond Reef," (New York harbor,) but the result had not been ascertained by a survey.

The operations were resumed the 2d of February, and continued in spite of the cold and stormy weather, until the 26th of March, when Mr. Maillefert was wounded by the disastrous explosion of a charge above water.

Pot Rock had already, since the 27th of February, been broken down to a depth of *twenty feet six inches* below mean low water, a depth which was deemed sufficient for commercial purposes, wherefore no operation has taken place upon Pot Rock since that day. This splendid and highly satisfactory result has been obtained by the firing of two hundred and eighty-four charges, of which twenty-seven were of seventy-eight pounds of gunpowder each, and two hundred and fifty-seven were of one hundred and twenty-five pounds each.

When Mr. Maillefert had recovered from his wounds, he recommenced operations the 12th of June, and has continued them since in Hell-Gate, as well as on Diamond Reef, lying between Governor's Island and the Battery.

The results obtained up to the 4th inst. are as follows:—

Pot Rock broken down from 8 to 20½ feet below mean low water; Way's

Reef from 5 to 14½ feet; Frying Pan from 9 to 18½ feet; Shelldrake Rock from 7½ to 16½ feet; Diamond Reef from 16 to 18 feet.

Bald-headed Billy, a large boulder, and two small rocks opposite Mr. Edwin Hoit's mansion, have been broken, and entirely removed into deep water.

The above depths at mean low water correspond with the following depths at mean high water:—

Pot Rock removed to a depth of 26½ feet at mean high water; Way's Reef 20½ feet; Frying Pan 24½ feet; Shelldrake Rock 22½ feet; Diamond Reef 24 feet.

The removal of these large and dangerous rocks constitutes a great and very sensible improvement. The appearance of Hell-Gate is greatly changed, the terrible whirlpool, called the "Pot," is not to be found any more, and the project of making Long Island Sound and Hell-Gate the main entrance for steam and other vessels coming from Europe or from the north to the harbor of New York, whereby, besides other great advantages, a distance of twenty-five miles may be saved, can now be seriously contemplated.

The experiment is now completed, and the results obtained by Mr. Maillefert's operations are undisputed and undisputable. They greatly surpass even the most sanguine expectations, and have established universal faith in the *modus operandi*, the efficiency of which was, at first, so generally doubted.

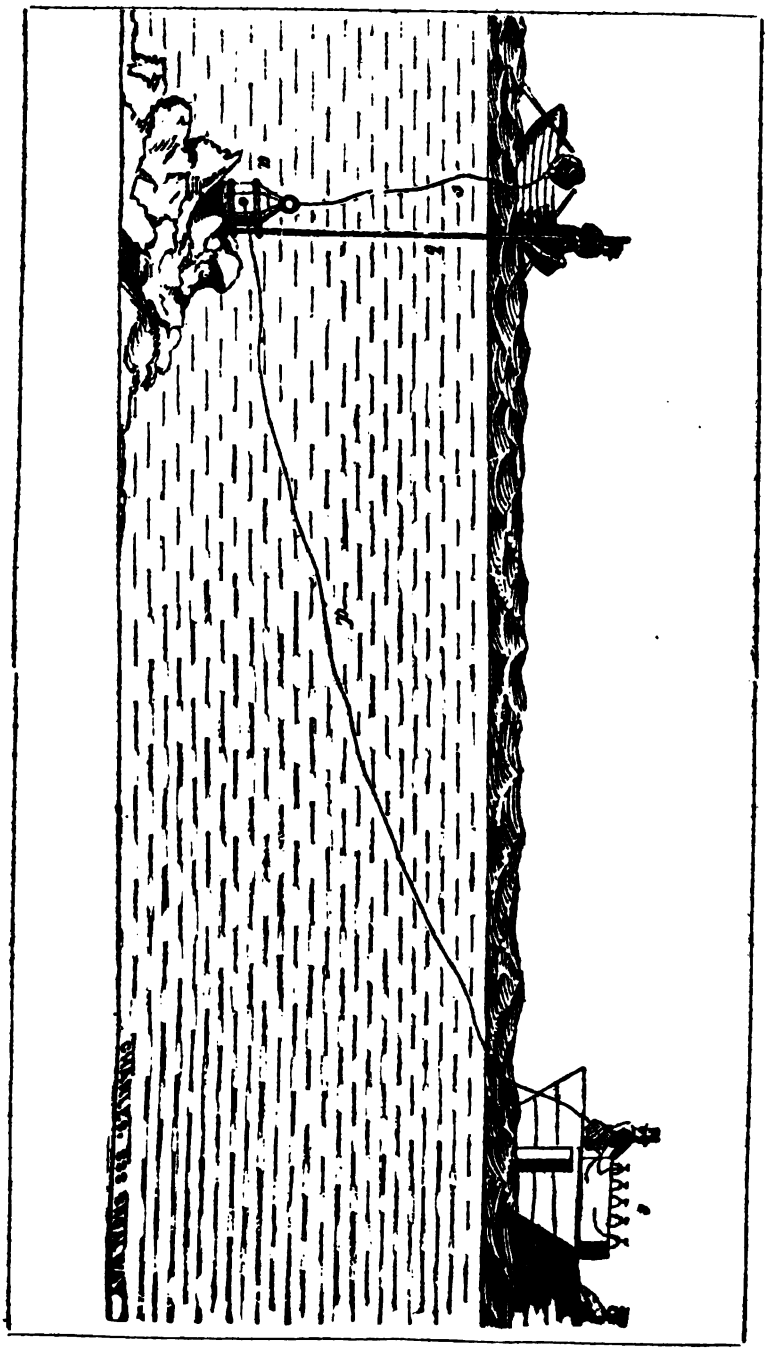
We will now proceed to show the difference between this mode of blasting rocks under water, and those hitherto used, its peculiar advantages, and applications.

It has always, heretofore, been the practice in all attempts to blast rocks under water, to insert the explosive charge in or under the rock, under the impression that the rock could not be separated or removed unless the charge were confined *within* the mass of the rock, or in some suitable cavity *under* it, or between it and the solid bottom, on which it rests. And as the drilling of the rock, or the making of the required excavation under it for the confinement or reception of the charge in many instances is entirely impracticable, and almost always attended with great labor and difficulty, when made under water, the discovery of a more generally applicable, as well as easier and cheaper method, has been for a long time a great desideratum.

Considering the great resistance which the water offers to the passage of bodies through it, and which is as the squares of the velocity and the mass of water to be displaced, Mr. Maillefert concluded that by placing a charge of gunpowder on or against the surface of the rock to be blasted, at a proper depth under water, and by firing off that charge, the considerable volume of gas which is almost instantaneously produced by such an explosion, would, in forcing its way through the water, meet with a resistance which would make it act in all directions, though in a different degree, somewhat like powder confined in a mine, and that the proportion of the concussion, which would thus be directed against the rock, would be sufficient to disintegrate even the hardest and most tenacious kinds.

This conclusion proved perfectly correct in all cases where a proper proportion existed between the depth of water above the charge, the quantity and quality of the powder exploded, and the character of the rock, and was therefore made the basis of this new method of blasting rocks under water, by which the difficulty, labor, and expense connected with drilling operations are entirely obviated.

Mr. Maillefert's mode of procedure in carrying out his method of blasting, is as follows:—



He takes a canister *a* made of tin or other suitable material, inserts an isolated conductor *d*, fills it with gunpowder, and closes it up so as to prevent access of the water. The cylinder *a* is then lowered on the rock, from a boat or float, and by means of a rope or chain *c*. Sliding along the guide-rod, *b*, it is placed exactly on the spot to be blasted, after which the guide-rod *b* is withdrawn, the boat or float moved away far enough not to be injured by the agitation of the water consequent upon the explosion, which is effected by connecting the conductor *d* with a galvanic battery, *e*, also placed at a suitable distance.

The explosion throws up a considerable body of water to a hight of from thirty to one hundred feet, breaks and scatters part of the rock, and sometimes makes the ground tremble at a distance of more than half a mile.

As soon as the agitation of the water has subsided, the boats resume their station above the rock, which is carefully examined and sounded, by means of one or more sounding-rods, and another charge is then lowered down and fired on any spot discovered to require additional concussion.

We cannot here go into detail about the depth of water required, the quantity of rock broken down by every explosion, the rules for choosing the spots on which to place the charge, the time required for the firing of a charge, etc., all of which depends entirely upon the character of the rock, the velocity of the current, and a great many other circumstances, which vary according to the locality.

The above-mentioned results, obtained in Hell-Gate, where nearly sixteen hundred cubic yards of the hardest rock (Gneiss) have been broken down and removed under very difficult circumstances, as an experiment, in less than seven-and-a-half months, are sufficient to indicate what is to be expected from this method of blasting, which offers the following great and peculiar advantages:—

It can be applied under all such circumstances which would render the establishment or the working of a drilling apparatus entirely impracticable, or extremely difficult and expensive, as *f. i.* in open roads, and even in the open sea, all along the seacoast, in the most frequented thoroughfares, etc., etc. It is in such cases the only available method for the breaking down of rocks, reefs, and shoals formed by hard agglomerations, because either the depth of water or the violence of the current, the swell of the water, and the frequent passage of vessels, would render it impossible, or almost so, to establish and work a drilling or any other permanent apparatus.

The charges can be prepared either on shore or on board a vessel moored in the vicinity of the field of operations. The operation itself, therefore, requires no other apparatus than a float or two boats, which can readily be brought to the spot, and again withdrawn at the shortest notice. This makes it possible not only to profit of almost every favorable opportunity, either in regard to the tide or the weather, but also to carry out the operation in the most frequented thoroughfares, without in the least interfering with or impeding the navigation.

It furnishes a very excellent and easy method for removing boulders such as obstruct and endanger, more or less, the navigation of almost all our rivers and maritime thoroughfares. One or two charges properly applied being in most instances sufficient to remove even the heaviest boulders out of the channel, this mode of operation proves not only less expensive, but also infinitely more expeditious than the one hitherto used, viz: drilling the boulder,

blasting it to pieces, and subsequently picking up the pieces and carrying them on shore or into deep water.

It is a cheap method, both on account of its economy in labor and of its extreme expeditiousness. The greatest improvements to be made by this mode of operating, will hardly ever require more than one season to carry them to a successful end.

It can be very advantageously connected or combined with other submarine operations, as f. i. :—

With drilling, as an auxiliary operation towards facilitating and quickening the removal of those rocks, etc., which are so located that *breaking* them by blasting in connection with drilling, will involve less expense than the blasting without drilling.

With *dragging* and *dredging*, for the special purpose of breaking such obstructions as snags, or other solid objects, hard agglomerations, etc., which could not be overcome by the apparatus used for those operations, and by which, therefore, a considerable dragging or dredging operation might be stopped in its progress.

It can be most effectually used for the opening of navigation in thoroughfares obstructed by ice; and acting as well upon the bottom as upward, it will, in many instances, be the means of preventing the formation of bars in rivers, where such obstructions very often will accumulate under or against the ice bar.

This short account will be sufficient to indicate the many applications that may be made of Mr. Maillefert's invention, and to show that it is destined to take a prominent place among the agencies of those submarine operations upon which we must depend for the improvement of our maritime highways. It is calculated to overcome all the difficulties in the way of those grand improvements which could not hitherto be thought of, and we venture to say that, by its liberal application, the greater part of those dangerous rocks, reefs, and ledges, by which the navigation of the waters along our coast, and in our rivers and lakes, is made extremely perilous, causing every year numerous and most melancholy shipwrecks, can be removed in the course of a few years, if the necessary means (small when compared to the terrible losses which would thereby be obviated) can be obtained for such improvements, which the voice of humanity and the interests of the country loudly call for.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT FOR GOODS SOLD AND DELIVERED.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, Suffolk County, March term, 1852. Judge Fletcher presiding. The Frostburg Mining Company, *vs.* The New England Glass Company.

This was an action of assumpsit for goods sold and delivered. At the trial the plaintiffs produced one Child as a witness, who testified that he was the agent of the plaintiffs, who did their business in Baltimore, Md.; that about the 19th March, 1849, he received from the agents of the defendants, who do their business in Cambridge and Boston, a verbal order for a cargo of coal to be shipped by the plaintiffs from Baltimore in a vessel drawing not over ten feet of water, at a freight not over $2 25 per ton. This order the witness forwarded to the

agent of the plaintiffs in Baltimore, and on the 14th April, 1849, the cargo was shipped on board a schooner which drew, when fully loaded, nine feet nine inches only. The bill of lading was forwarded by the plaintiffs to Mr. Child, and received by him in due course of mail on the 16th or 17th April, and specified the freight to be $2 25 per ton. On the day it was received, it was indorsed by Mr. Child, and together with a bill of the coal left by him in the counting room of the defendants' agent, who was at that time absent. As soon as the defendants' agent returned, he sent back the bill of lading and refused to receive the coal. The bill for the coal reduced the price twenty cents per ton, so that the freight on the coal to be paid by the defendants would not exceed the limits of $2 25 per ton. On the passage from Baltimore to Boston the vessel in which the coal was shipped, foundered. After being raised and repaired, she arrived in Boston, where the plaintiffs, by their agent, tendered the coal to the defendants, who refused to receive it.

It was proved at the trial that by the usage of the coal trade between Baltimore and Boston, when coal is ordered in Boston from Baltimore, the delivery of it on board a vessel consigned to the person ordering it, is a compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it.

Fletcher J. delivered the opinion of the Court. The defense was, that according to the provisions of the statute of frauds, this being a contract for the sale of goods, wares, and merchandise for the price of fifty dollars or more, and there being no note or memorandum of the bargain in writing, the contract was not binding unless the purchaser should accept and receive part of the goods, or give something in earnest to bind the bargain or in part payment. There was nothing given in part payment, or in earnest, and the only question was, whether the defendants did accept and receive the goods, or any part of them? That there was no actual taking or acceptance of the coal by the defendants, is quite clear. So soon as the defendants' agent had knowledge that the bill of lading was left at his counting-room, he forthwith sent it back to the plaintiff's agent, and expressly refused to receive the coal. When the coal itself arrived, and was tendered to the defendants' agent, he at once refused to receive it. So that the defendants had promptly repelled all attempts to make an actual delivery of the vessel to them, and had promptly refused to accept and receive the coal or any part of it. But it was contended by the plaintiffs' council that it is not necessary that there should be an actual manual taking or occupation of the coal, but that there may be a constructive accepting and receiving, and that the receiving on board the vessel was a sufficient accepting and receiving by the defendants. The proposition of the plaintiffs that there may be a constructive accepting and receiving, or a receiving without the actual manual occupation by the purchaser, seems to be well sustained by the authorities. Therefore, in many cases it is made a question to the Jury whether the purchaser by his mode of acting or forbearing to act, or by some acquiescence, has not accepted the goods though there has been no actual manual taking and occupation of them by him. The further proposition of the plaintiff, that the acceptance and receipt to satisfy the statute of frauds are not such as to preclude the purchaser from afterwards to the quantity or quality of the goods is certainly fully sustained by the case of Morton *vs.* Tibbett (15 Adol. & Ellis.) This case in this particular differs from many previous cases, which are all carefully referred to and commented on by the Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, in delivering the opinion of the Court. In Morton *vs.* Tibbetts, the receipt of the goods is considered as a substitute for writing, leaving to the purchaser the same right to object that the contract has not been complied with, which he would have if the contract had been in writing. The other and most material proposition on behalf of the plaintiffs, that the coal when delivered on board the vessel was accepted and received by the defendants, within the provision of the statute, remains to be considered.

That a delivery to a carrier is not sufficient to satisfy the statute, as a general proposition, is undoubtedly true, and is very properly admitted by the plaintiffs' council. But it is maintained that the master of the vessel under the particular circumstances of this case, was an agent to accept, to satisfy the statute, because in the first place he was a carrier nominated by the defendants. But the facts

show that the verbal order of the defendants was merely to transmit the coal shipped by the plaintiffs, from Baltimore, in a vessel drawing not more than ten feet of water, at a freight not over $2 25 per ton. No reference was made to any particular vessel or master. Even this very general order was not complied with by the plaintiffs, as the freight was $2 45 per ton, instead of $2 25, as was ordered. This departure in the price of the freight would, perhaps, of itself be sufficient to exempt the defendants from the liability to take and pay for the coal. But it is not necessary to put the case on that ground, or attach any importance to that fact. The order as to a vessel was very general, referring to no particular vessel, or master, specifying only the draft of water and price of freight. The master was merely a carrier, and the taking by him would in no sense, and upon no principle, be regarded as a receipt by the vendee. The case of Morton *vs.* Tibbetts was much stronger than the present one. There, the defendant himself sent a particular lighterman to receive the wheat. But the delivery to the lighterman was not considered to be a receipt by the vendee, though other acts of the vendee, tending to show an acceptance by him, were regarded as sufficient to justify a verdict for the plaintiff. So also in Bushel *vs.* Wheeler, in the same volume, the vendee ordered the goods to be forwarded by a particular sloop, yet the delivery on board the sloop was not regarded as a receipt by the vendee within the statute, though the subsequent acts, and forbearing to act, on the part of the vendee, were held to be sufficient to go to the jury, to find an actual receipt by the vendee. It is therefore quite clear that a delivery on board the vessel, in this case, cannot be regarded as a receipt, within the provision of the statute, by the vendee, on the ground that the defendants ordered the coal to be forwarded in that way.

But it is further maintained by the plaintiffs, that the master of the vessel was an agent to accept, within the statute, because the usage of trade made him such in the coal trade between Boston and Baltimore. The usage, as shown, was that when coal is ordered in Boston from Baltimore, the delivery of it on board a vessel consigned to the person ordering it, is in compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it. It does not in terms appear whether or not this usage applies to mere verbal orders which are intended by the statute of frauds. Nor is it shown upon what ground this usage can be set up and maintained against established provisions and principles of law? Upon general principles of mercantile law, where a person accepts a written order, and delivers goods on board a vessel according to the order, consigned to the person ordering them, in common form, they are then of course at the risk of the consignee. When orders have been received and executed, and delivery has been made to the master of the ship and bills of lading signed and forwarded, the seller is *functus officio*, and can do nothing more, except so far as he may have a right of stoppage *in transitu*.

It is unnecessary to consider how far there could be any usage affecting the rights of the parties in this case, as it is quite clear that the case is not within the usage set up and relied upon. The usage is said to be, that when coal ordered is delivered on board a vessel consigned to the party ordering it, that is a compliance with the order, and the coal is thereafter at the risk of the party ordering it. But in the present case, the coal was not consigned to the party ordering it, but on the contrary was consigned to the plaintiffs' own agent. By the bill of lading the coal was to be delivered to Addison Child or his assigns. But the bill of lading expressed that it was to be delivered to Addison Child for the New England Glass Co., and when the bill of lading was received by the consignee he indorsed it and offered it to the defendants' agent, which it is said was a substantial compliance with the alleged custom. The supposed custom required the coal to be consigned to the defendants, but it was in fact consigned to the plaintiffs' agent. This, so far from being a substantial compliance with, was the widest possible departure from the custom. The bill of lading gave the defendants no right to, or control over the coal, and when indorsed and offered to defendants' agent, were promptly rejected. There was, therefore, no acceptance of the coal by the defendants, to satisfy the statute of frauds, and the plaintiffs must become nonsuit.

WHAT CONSTITUTES DUE DILIGENCE IN MAKING A DEMAND UPON THE DRAWER OF A NOTE, ETC.

The following opinions delivered by Judge Lewis, in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, April, 1852, are of interest to the bar and business men. The one is in reference to the practice in pleadings, and the other relates to what constitutes due diligence in making a demand upon the drawer of a note.

Bennett *vs.* Young.—Lewis J.—In this case we are unable to perceive any error in the proceedings of the Court below. On the contrary we are gratified to find that the Court was so properly impressed, in regard to its powers and duties, and so careful of the rights of the parties as to instruct the jury distinctly that "the question of what is due diligence in making a demand upon the drawer, when the facts are undisputed, is a question of law exclusively, and that where it depends upon controverted facts, it is for the jury to determine what the facts are: and if the facts are ascertained the law settles it, whether there has been due diligence." There was no error in this instruction.

But it seems that the Notary undertook to draw to himself the cognizance of the whole question of law and fact by a sweeping certificate that he had "made diligent search and inquiry" for the drawers. The Judge admitted this certificate in evidence, and that threw upon the defendant the burden of disproving the facts therein stated. This was rendered exceedingly difficult by the omission to state in the certificate the acts of the Notary, with the material circumstances of time, place and persons, which were supposed by him to amount to "diligent search and inquiry." Where did he search? Did he go to the last place of residence of the drawers? Did he inquire of the holder himself, who is presumed to know, before he takes the note, the residence as well as the circumstances of the drawers? Did he even take the trouble to examine the common source of information, the Directory? The certificate is silent on all these questions. But difficult as the task was, the defendant gave ample evidence to show the dangerous nature of admitting the certificate of the notary as evidence of facts not distinctly stated, so that the party may have the means of rebutting the evidence, and the Court the means of judging, if the facts are not contested, whether they constitute due diligence or not. The act of January 2, 1815, makes the *official acts*, *protests*, and *attestations* of all Notaries Public acting under the authority of this Commonwealth, certified under their respective seals of office, prima facie evidence. But it has been properly said that this statute was not intended to enlarge the official duties of Notaries, but merely to furnish the means of authenticating such acts as were within their official authority before. Chief Justice Gibson, in delivering the opinion of the Court in Bellimere *vs.* Bank of the United States, 4 Whar. 113, states that "though generally if not universally employed on such occasions, the *official* character of a Notary extends *only* to the protest, and not to the hunting up of the parties." Under our present view of the value of these certificates in the form in which this was made up, and the great abuse which may be practiced by means of them, we are not surprised that the Judge below told the jury that he had "some question whether the certificate was any evidence at all." It is not necessary to decide the question at present. It is sufficient to say that this remark to the jury furnishes no ground for reversing the judgment. Judgment affirmed.

Smith et al. *vs.* Latour.—Where the facts set forth in a declaration or plan do not *in any form in which they may be stated*, constitute a good cause of action in the one case, or a valid defense in the other, the parties may, if they prefer that course, contest the facts in the first place before the jury, and afterwards call for the judgment of the Court upon them as found and set forth upon the record. But if the objections touch not the *substance*, but go merely to the *form*, in which the facts are set forth, this course cannot be pursued. He that stands upon matters of form—has a slippery footing, and if he slips at the time when the law requires him to stand, the objection is cured by his own inattention to the very matter which he charges upon his adversary. It is assuredly very late in the day to announce, in a decision of the highest Court in the State, that duplicity in a declaration and defects of form in setting forth a good cause of

action cannot be taken advantage of after verdict. The first is cause for a demurrer only. That fault and the last is cured by the statute of Jeofails. The second count is bad, but we can reach [illegible] the elements from which a perfect declaration, containing a good cause of action might have been constructed.

The defendants below are indeed charged with fraudulently obtaining goods from plaintiff below by pretending and asserting that they were good for the sum in a note against McKinnie which it is in effect asserted they knew to be worthless. After verdict we may understand this declaration as containing the averments that the defendants represented the note of McKinnie to be good and valuable; that they knew at the time that this representation was false; that they intended by means of this assertion to defraud the plaintiff, and that they thereby succeeded in fraudulently obtaining the goods. These facts properly set forth constitute a good cause of action. But if the writ had been issued before the [illegible] judgment should be reversed. For the ordinary case of one of the several counts, some of which are good and the remainder bad, it has been held, although the evidence may have been applicable to all the counts, the court below might have executed the verdict and judgment upon the good ones. Under the act of Assembly which authorizes this court to enter the judgment which the court below might have entered, and upon the points [illegible] which, now independent of the act of Assembly, govern the courts in administering the law according to common sense and justice, this court might [illegible] the verdict and judgment upon the counts admitted to be good. [illegible] whole evidence before us, we might do what was done in Caldwell vs. Keyser, 7 Barr, 392. But this is not necessary, as we are satisfied that the [illegible] of the second count contains more than enough of the defendant's conduct in which a good cause of action is set forth, and this as already stated is now by the verdict.

The court below was asked in the last point to instruct the jury that the first count in the declaration was defective, and it is here contended that the court refused to give the instruction and stated that the defendants should have demurred to it or moved in arrest of judgment. This was not strictly correct. The jury were empanelled to try the issue of fact and to assist the office of the court and determine the question of law arising upon the face of the declaration. What had the jury to do with the counts in the declaration? They were to ascertain whether the facts which it charged were established by the evidence or not and the effect of the finding was for the decision of the court afterwards. To permit a party to obtain a verdict and then [illegible] technical objections to the form of the declaration would be a perversion of justice. The court was perfectly correct in its view of this point of the case. Fifteen points were presented for the consideration of the court below, and there are nineteen specifications of error here. But we perceive no error in any part of the proceedings below. Judgment affirmed.

EQUITY—CONTRACT TO DELIVER STOCKS, ETC.

In the Superior Court, City of New York, February, 1852, before Judge Duer, Paine, and Bosworth. John B. Staples, vs. Charles Gould.

[Contract to deliver stock at stipulated price. Deposit by principal with broker to cover contingent loss in case of stock on time. A contract to deliver stock on time when none is owned either by broker or principal whether in name of broker or principal absolutely void under the statute. Money deposited with broker to secure him against loss in such transactions not recoverable.]

The pleadings and evidence establish the following facts:—That [illegible] the 15th of January, 1851, employed the defendant, a broker, to sell for him 200 shares of Canton Company stock, at the price of $66 per share, deliverable at the option of plaintiff at any time within 30 days from that date, the stock to be paid for on delivery. In pursuance of such employment, the defendant on the same day, as such broker and agent and with the knowledge of the plaintiff, contracted to sell 100 shares to Gilbert, Coit & Johnson, and 100 shares to Wheelock & Brothers, at $66 per share, deliverable at the option of the parties,

at any time within 30 days thereafter. The contracts were made in the name of the defendant, without his disclosing to the purchasers that the plaintiff was his principal.

On the same day, the plaintiff deposited with the defendant $750 in money, "for the purpose of protecting the defendant against loss or damage in the business of such agency, and with the agreement and understanding between them that the defendant should have the right to retain so much of these moneys as should be necessary fully to indemnify and save him harmless from loss or damage, by reason of such sale to be made by him, as the broker and agent of the plaintiff." And the plaintiff agreed, in consideration of the acceptance of such agency by the defendant, to indemnify and save him harmless from all loss and damage by reason of such agency, and to fulfil and perform the contracts of sale so made by the defendant as his agent and broker. The plaintiff did not own any stock when he employed the defendant to make the contract of sale, nor at the time when the contracts were made, nor at any time within thirty days thereafter. Nor did the defendant own any of the stock at the time he made the contracts. On the 20th January, 1851, 350 shares of the stock of this company were transferred to the defendant on the transfer books of the company. On the same day he transferred to each of the purchasers the 100 shares of stock contracted on the 15th, to be sold to them respectively. This stock brought on the morning of the 20th, $80, and at the close of the day $85 per share. Before and at the expiration of the thirty days it was worth less than $66 per share.

There was no evidence tending to show that the plaintiff knew of the delivery of the stock, on the 20th of January, to the purchasers, or that the defendant requested the plaintiff to furnish any stock to be delivered in satisfaction of the contracts, or that the plaintiff offered to furnish the stock to enable the defendant to perform his contracts, or as a satisfaction for the defendant's stock which had been delivered in execution of the contracts; there was no attempt to prove that the plaintiff during the thirty days next after the making of the contracts demanded a return of the $750 from the defendant, or notified him not to perform the contracts.

This action was tried on the 9th of December, 1851, before the Chief Justice, who "reserved all the questions in the case; directed a verdict for the plaintiff, subject to the opinion of the court upon a case to be made, either party to be at liberty to turn the case into a bill of exceptions; the case to be heard at general term, without an appeal, and with liberty to the court to order a nonsuit or judgment for the defendant."

The case made, shows the facts to be as before stated.

Bosworth, Justice.—The plaintiff advanced his money to the defendant to indemnify him against any losses he might incur by reason of making, or having made contracts for the sale of 200 shares of Canton stock. The obvious purpose of the advance was to furnish moneys with which the defendant might pay the amount of any increase there might be in the value of stock, on the day for the delivery of it, above the contract price of $66 per share. The plaintiff did not own any stock at the time he authorized the contract to be made, nor at the time he was notified that the contracts had been made, nor within thirty days thereafter. The only inference is, that he employed the defendant to make a contract which is declared void by statute. If it was intended that the defendant should contract in the plaintiff's name as principal, then he employed the defendant to make a contract, falling within the express words of the statute in relation to stock-jobbing. (1 R. S. 710, § 6.)

It was probably intended that the defendant should contract in his own name without disclosing his principal. If this was not intended, the deposit of the $750, as an indemnity against the consequences of contracting, would be an idle ceremony. For if it was intended that the defendant should expressly contract as agent, in behalf of the plaintiff as principal, no indemnity would be wanted, as the defendant could not then, in any event, be subjected to liability or loss, by reason of making the contract, whether the transaction was lawful or unlawful.

A contract on time for the sale of stock, made through the medium of a broker, where the name of the principal is not disclosed, is as much within the meaning of the statute, as if made by the principal personally in his own name. (6 Paige 124, Gram. *vs.* Stebbins and Stebbins. 2 Hall 162, J. & W. G. Ward *vs.* Van Duzer.)

The defendant did not own any stock when he made the contracts; the contracts were, therefore, void, whether regarded as his contracts or those of the plaintiff. The answer and complaint severally aver that the contracts were made by the defendant on account of the plaintiff.

The money advanced was delivered to the defendant, to secure his aid in furtherance of an object repugnant to the express provisions of the statute, and to be put by the latter to an unlawful use, if such use of it should become necessary, to save him from loss or damage on his contracts. It was, therefore, advanced to be used for an illegal purpose, and as an inducement to the defendant to engage, on account of the plaintiff, in transactions contravening the policy of a statute law of this State. It is well settled, that an act *malum prohibitum*, or *malum in se*, cannot be made the foundation of a civil right which will be enforced in a court of justice. If a person lends money, or sells property, to be put to an unlawful use, and if such an unlawful use enters into the contract, and is the inducement to the loan or sale, the lender cannot recover back the money lent, nor the vendor for the property sold, though not in any other respect a party to or connected with the unlawful transaction. (5 Denio, 364, Morgan, *vs.* Groff; 2d Sand, S. C. R. 146, Bell, *vs.* Quin; 7 Wend, 276, Pennington and Kean, *vs.* Townsend; 4 Mees and Wels, 434, McKennell, *vs.* Robinson vide ! Gray, *vs.* Hook, 4 Coms, 449.)

The plaintiff cannot recover under § 8, of the statute. That section provides that "every person who shall pay and deliver any money, etc., by *way* of *premium* or *difference*, in *pursuance of any contract* or wager in the two last sections declared void, may recover such money, etc., of and from the party receiving the same and his personal representatives."

This was not paid or delivered as a *premium* or *difference*. It was paid or delivered to indemnify the defendant against the losses to which his contract might subject him. It was not paid either as a *premium* or difference *in pursuance* of the contract of sale which defendant made with Gilbert, Cobb and Johnson, or with Wheelock and Brother. There was never anything paid in pursuance of either of those contracts as a *premium* or *difference*. There was a literal performance of each of those contracts, by a delivery of the stock sold. That section evidently means that, where a person sells stock on time, not then being the owner of any, at a stipulated price, and instead of delivering it, pays the excess of its market value above the contract price, or receives the excess of the contract price above that of the market price, the party so paying the premium or difference may recover back the amount thus paid. The extent of the statuary provisions is simply this: The contract of sale is made void. It cannot be inforced by either party. Neither can recover damages for the breach of it. If instead of being literally executed, either party in *pursuance* of such contract, has paid or delivered money by *way* of *premium* or *difference*, he may recover it back. In this case the defendant, in substance and effect, received the money, *to be paid* by him by way of premium or difference, if the market value of stock at the period for fulfilling the contracts should exceed the contract price. This, at all events, is the interpretation of the object of the advance most favorable to the plaintiff, so far as his right to recover under the eighth section is concerned. If it was, in fact, advanced or deposited merely to secure the defendant from loss by means of making the contract, without any intention that it should be actually applied in any event to pay a premium or difference, then the advance or deposit is not such a payment or delivery as is specified in the eighth section of this act; therefore it cannot be recovered back under that section. (5 Denio, 373, Morgan *vs.* Groff.) Neither can the plaintiff say that he repented of his intended violation of the statute, before it was violated, that he so notified the defendant, revoked the agency, and demanded a return of the money, and, there-

fore he is entitled to recover it back. The plaintiff cannot recover on such grounds. Even if the law would aid him to recover back the money, on such a state of facts, it is sufficient answer to say that such are not the facts of this case.

There is no proof of the revocation of the agency; on the contrary the contracts were made for the plaintiff's benefit; he was so notified and did not dissent; no request for a return of the money was made until after the *whole time allowed*, by the terms of the contract, for the delivery of the stock, had elapsed; if the *locus penitentiæ* could continue beyond that period, it would continue until the plaintiff's claim should be barred by the statute of limitations; the repentance, for which the law gives opportunity to a party, is repentance of a purpose to offend against public policy, or to violate the laws, and not of having lost his money; that must be exercised while a contract is executory, or before the contingent event happens. "The happening of the event is the crisis in the contract which terminates all election, opinion or repentance." If that principle could by any possibility be applied to a case of this character, the recision of the contract and a demand of a return of the money should have been made within the thirty days fixed for the delivery of the stock.—(12 J. R., Yates *vs.* Foot.)

What would have been the rights of the parties, if it had appeared that the plaintiff, during the thirty days, had not notified the defendant not to perform the contracts, and had demanded a return of the money advanced, it is unnecessary to discuss, and no opinion is intended to be expressed on that point.

On the case, as now presented to the court, the verdict should be set aside, and a judgment of nonsuit entered.

C. P. Kirkland for plaintiff; J. Lerocque for defendant.

ACTION UPON A PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the Supreme Court, (city of New-York, May 17th, 1852,) before Judge Sanford. Richard A. Reading and William H. Merchant, Ex'rs, against John Bacon & Son and Westlake & Coger.

This was an action upon a promissory note for $1,620, made by J. Bacon & Son, 4th August, 1851, to the order of Westlake & Coger, and by them indorsed and negotiated to plaintiffs' testator.

It is claimed for the defense, that the note was delivered to Westlake & Coger to get it discounted for the benefit of the makers; but that they misappropriated it, and negotiated it for their own benefit; that the note was an accommodation note, without consideration between the original parties, and that it had been negotiated at a usurious rate of interest.

It appeared from the testimony of Westlake, called in behalf of his co-defendant, that he had taken the note to get it discounted for the makers, but that he diverted it from this use, and gave it to Merchant as collateral security on $1,300 borrowed from him upon their check on the Manhattan Bank; and that Merchant had charged at the rate of one per cent per week upon this loan. It was also in evidence that this check, when presented at the bank, was credited to Merchant; but that, as soon as it was found that Westlake & Coger had no funds in the bank, Merchant was notified, the check protested, and charged to his account.

The court charged the jury to consider this action as two different suits, one against the makers, and the other against the indorsers—their right and interests being distinct and separate. As to the indorsers, the jury must leave out the testimony of Westlake, and then the case, as against them, was free from the charge of usury; that what happened at the bank, at the presentment of the check, did not amount to a payment. The testimony of Westlake alone supported the charge of usury, on which the defendants, the makers, relied for their defense; if the jury believed this testimony, the plaintiffs were not *bona fide* holders of the note, as against these defendants.

Verdict for the plaintiff—$1,300, as against Bacon & Son; $1,670 51, as against Westlake & Coger.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL ASPECT OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—CREDITS AT THE SOUTH AND WEST—BLESSINGS AND DANGERS OF PROSPERITY—INCREASED VALUE OF PROPERTY—CONDITION OF THE NEW YORK STATE BANKS—DIFFICULTIES CONNECTED WITH THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM—NECESSITY OF A LIBERAL INTERPRETATION OF THE LAWS TO INSURE HARMONY BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT AND THE PEOPLE—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS FOR JULY—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY—CAUSE OF THE DECLINE FROM PREVIOUS YEARS—IMPORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST—WAREHOUSING MOVEMENT—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY, AND FOR SEVEN MONTHS—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK—REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR 1851-2—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR FOUR YEARS—EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY, AND FOR SEVEN MONTHS—COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF SPECIE AND MERCHANDISE.

THE season for summer relaxation from the cares of business is about over, and those who have been wandering in search of health or pleasure have, for the most part, returned to their posts. Here and there we miss from 'Change, or the haunts of business, some well-remembered form, which has given way under the weight of years, or the toils of a too constant engagement, and while the laugh was gayest during the summer revel, has been quietly laid to rest. But most have again buckled on the harness, and braced themselves for a renewed struggle in the great arena. We have cause to congratulate those who are engaged in commercial affairs, (of all labor the most arduous,) upon the comparative absence of those fretting and anxious cares, which so often crowd upon the opening season. There is no stringency in the money-market, haunting the merchant with a constant fear of dishonored bills, or broken engagements. There are no suspicious whisperings of failing credit, the precursor of protests and bankruptcy. No one can now be prostrated in business by being crowded at an unexpected moment. Capital is freely supplied, and all who have, in any substantial property, a balance on the right side of their ledger, need have no trouble about meeting their liabilities. This prosperity is not confined to the large commercial markets; it is extended throughout the country. The South, which was at one time almost universally distrusted, has nobly sustained its credit. With a cotton crop of over three millions of bales, the price of this great staple has been maintained far above the usual average, thus fully realizing the hopes of the planter. Throughout the West there has been such a large distribution of money, that the merchants are seldom pinched for want of the means of payment. It is true that the price of wheat, and consequently of flour, has been lower than might be expected, as compared with other property; but pork, beef, Indian corn, and most other provisions and products of the soil, are unusually high. This general prosperity is not without its trials and dangers, some of them quite as real and palpable as those which attend upon adversity. There is danger that the avenues of business will be too much crowded; that the mass will forsake the slow and certain methods of acquiring, and rush into those which promise more rapid fortunes; that thousands will be lured by the general sunshine into spreading too much sail for their weight of ballast, and thus be shipwrecked in the first breath of an adverse gale. And yet a large multitude of the young and thrifty will take advantage of these golden hours to secure a

competency, for which they would have struggled in vain, or at least more anxiously, in less favorable circumstances. There has been a steady advance in the nominal value of most descriptions of permanent property, but as yet we have to notice very little rash speculation. The banks have not expanded beyond a safe limit, their large specie basis being constantly on the increase. In our last we gave a comparative statement of the condition of the New York city banks, as just compiled by order of the Controller; we now annex a summary of the condition of all the banks in the State of New York at the date of their last three quarterly statements:—

	Dec. 20, 1851.	March 27, 1852.	June 26, 1852
Loans and discounts	$103,590,700	$111,476,008	$121,289,046
Stocks	15,093,733	14,918,189	15,867,298
Specie	8,306,829	10,730,634	13,304,356
Cash items	10,272,860	12,235,862	12,871,410
Bank notes	2,887,037	2,614,170	3,243,650
Due from banks	10,525,200	11,147,870	11,060,059
Capital	58,621,422	59,026,740	58,705,682
Circulation	26,228,553	27,312,054	27,940,947
Deposits	46,836,682	56,211,535	65,034,604
Due to banks	16,498,666	19,083,264	25,229,167

The increase in loans and discounts, as well as in specie, has been confined almost exclusively to the city, as will be seen by a recapitulation of a few items from the statement of the New York city banks:—

	Capital.	Loans and discounts.	Specie.
June 26, 1852	$35,343,000	$81,873,000	$12,156,000
March 27, 1852	35,137,870	71,550,054	9,716,070
December 20, 1851	35,133,640	64,141,399	7,364,430

From the above it will be seen that the ratio between the specie and liabilities has been increased in favor of the former, and we may also mention that since the date of the above return, the stock of specie has received large accessions.

Some excitement has been manifested at New York in consequence of the introduction of new restrictions in connection with the entry of goods into private bonded warehouses. The Secretary of the Treasury claimed the right to make a suitable charge for watching and taking care of the goods thus stored, and there would seem to be nothing unreasonable in the principle of such remuneration. The importers asserted that the charge in question was contrary to law, and therefore submitted to the exaction under protest, and proceeded to test the question in the United States Courts. Whereupon, the Secretary forwards to New York a blank pledge, which he requires all to sign under penalty of the entire withdrawal from them of the privilege of private storage. This pledge not only provides against future protests, but also requires the signers to release all their past claims. This is resisted as unjust and oppressive. It is difficult, sometimes, to distinguish between the mutterings of a fault-finding spirit, and the remonstrances of those who feel sensible of having been wronged; but in this case it does appear as if the government were disposed to be a little arbitrary. The constant litigation between the importers and the officers in the Treasury Department, seems to have somewhat irritated the latter, and induced a partisan spirit, seldom found where no personal interests are at stake. This is all wrong, and the continued pressing of doubtful points will only increase the evil. The government have been defeated in a majority of the suits brought against it, and

that before the highest judicial tribunals of the country, where wrong has never triumphed. This would show that those connected with the collection of the revenue have been more intent upon gaining some advantage for the Department, than upon a judicious and liberal interpretation of the laws. We do not refer to any particular administration, but to the general tone of feeling which, with slight exceptions, has prevailed at Washington for years. Where there is any doubt of the meaning of an act, the scale should be turned in favor of the merchant, the government always having it in its power to protect itself by more explicit legislation. In cases where a judicial decision is asked by a claimant who fancies himself wronged, the executive should accede to it readily, and throw no obstacles in the way of its being speedily obtained. The exhibition on the part of the officers of the government of a contrary spirit, loses for the revenue more than it gains. The moment the government assumes an antagonistic position, and enters into the contest with the warmth of personal feeling, the importer is too apt to forget his own obligations, and take the opposite side, resolving to make the most he can, without regard to the real merits of the question. In the dispute particularly alluded to, the Department would appear to be doubtful in regard to the strict interpretation of the law, as the pledge offered requires a *renunciation* of the *legal* claim, without the privilege of a judicial decision.

We annex a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for the month of July:—

DEPOSITS FOR JULY.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$228,413	$235,981	$4,040,000	$4,200,000
Silver	1,372	12,643	20,000	21,500
Total	$229,785	$248,624	$4,060,000	$4,221,500

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	10,750	$215,000	209,093	$4,181,860
Eagles	.....	.....	40,305	403,050
Half-eagles	.....	.....	40,924	204,620
Quarter-eagles	14,000	35,000	66,656	166,640
Gold dollars	.....	.....	43,860	43,860
Total gold coinage	24,750	$250,000	400,838	$5,000,030

SILVER COINAGE.

Quarter-dollars	96,000	$24,000	.....	.....
Dimes	.....	.....	120,000	$12,000
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	862,400	25,872
Total silver coinage	96,000	$24,000	982,400	$37,872

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	.....	.....	466,599	$4,667
Total coinage	120,750	$274,000	1,849,837	$5,042,569

The total deposits of California gold for coinage at our mints since 1848 amount to about $135,000,000, while the total production is over $200,000,000.

We gave in our last uumber a statement of the imports at New York for the fiscal year ending June 30th. We have now compiled from official documents

a summary of the receipts for July, which show a falling off from July, 1851, of $1,563,793, and from the same month of 1850 of $6,231,729, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

Years.	Entered direct.	Entered warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	$11,453,117	$423,919	$915,154	$150,067	$12,942,257
1851.....	12,374,701	1,022,725	1,027,481	81,143	14,506,050
1850.....	16,591,446	2,155,320	499,512	1,927,708	21,173,986

Most of the receipts for specie, as put down for 1850, came from Chagres, and consisted of California gold, which then cleared from thence as from a foreign port. The withdrawals from warehouse for the month were $1,095,800 in 1852, $1,167,644 in 1851, and $944,127 in 1850. The stock in bonded warehouse is drawn down very low, and is much lighter than for several years.

This continued decline in the imports is just what might have been expected from the position of the markets in reference to foreign fabrics. Large losses had been suffered upon even the most desirable stock, and the natural result, instead of being the ruin of the merchants, as many predicted, has been a steady decrease in the imports.

The decrease at New York, where two-thirds of the foreign merchandise is received, has now reached a very considerable sum; the imports since January 1st, exclusive of specie, being $13,205,295 less than for the corresponding seven months of 1851, and $6,922,639 less than for the same period of 1850, as will appear from the following statement:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 31.

Years.	Entered direct.	Entered warehouse.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1852.....	$58,498,029	$5,451,668	$8,259,939	$2,028,248	$74,237,884
1851.....	70,762,894	8,486,912	6,165,125	1,480,476	86,895,407
1850.....	63,254,488	9,916,423	5,961,354	9,064,489	88,196,764

The apparent excess of specie in the year last given above, is owing to causes already stated. It will be seen that the value of goods entered warehouse has materially declined. This shows that the demand has been much more active, although other causes have also been at work. The withdrawals from warehouse have, on the other hand, been much greater, amounting for the first seven months of 1852 to $9,622,577, against $6,879,985 for the corresponding period of 1851, and $5,378,101 for the same period of 1850.

Of the decline in imports, as compared with last year, $7,245,923 has been in dry goods, and $5,959,372 in general merchandise. The imports of dry goods for July are $1,620,254 less than for July, 1851, and $4,302,086 less than for July, 1850, the falling off extending to nearly every variety of fabric:—

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE MONTH OF JULY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	$3,552,120	$2,354,643	$2,187,187
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,607,775	1,193,817	1,089,736
Manufactures of silk.....	4,572,161	3,933,092	3,074,265
Manufactures of flax.....	741,095	611,250	488,586
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	380,698	453,476	530,595
Total.....	$10,853,849	$8,546,278	$7,370,369

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$314,619	$318,717	$237,434
Manufactures of cotton	104,880	157,371	96,970
Manufactures of silk	124,574	265,709	149,394
Manufactures of flax	24,695	37,782	32,064
Miscellaneous dry goods	10,984	21,109	12,416
Total	$579,752	$800,688	$528,278
Add entered for consumption	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369
Total thrown upon market	$11,433,601	$9,346,966	$7,898,647

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$486,339	$341,315	$126,623
Manufactures of cotton	393,933	129,572	72,226
Manufactures of silk	222,142	268,318	130,624
Manufactures of flax	71,207	45,008	16,299
Miscellaneous dry goods	12,313	27,465	21,556
Total	$1,185,934	$811,673	$367,328
Add entered for consumption	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369
Total entered at the port	$12,039,783	$9,357,951	$7,737,697

The value of goods *thrown upon the market* shows a less relative decline than the value entered at the port, from the fact, as already stated, that the withdrawals from warehouse have been larger than the entries. We annex, also, a comparison of the receipts of dry goods at the same port since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 30.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$9,892,766	$8,936,521	$7,464,841
Manufactures of cotton	7,529,974	6,978,178	5,715,788
Manufactures of silk	12,488,150	15,742,584	12,242,731
Manufactures of flax	5,167,834	4,147,367	3,423,990
Miscellaneous dry goods	1,386,408	2,373,047	2,492,455
Total	$36,410,132	$38,177,697	$31,339,805

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$724,050	$896,547	$1,079,138
Manufactures of cotton	753,530	1,008,874	1,125,786
Manufactures of silk	689,011	858,926	1,401,176
Manufactures of flax	258,158	397,349	615,523
Miscellaneous dry goods	88,123	260,821	239,265
Total	$2,512,872	$3,422,517	$4,460,888
Add entered for consumption	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805
Total thrown upon market	$38,923,004	$41,600,214	$35,800,693

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,312,992	$1,165,289	$915,182
Manufactures of cotton	1,356,312	1,038,237	640,864
Manufactures of silk	794,542	1,238,440	1,652,118
Manufactures of flax	473,336	390,664	223,779
Miscellaneous dry goods	67,363	229,890	222,545
Total	$4,004,545	$4,062,520	$3,654,489
Add entered for consumption	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805
Total entered at the port	$40,414,677	$42,240,217	$34,994,294

The receipts for duties continue to decline, although not in the same proportion as the imports, the payments upon the stock taken from warehouse having otherwise added to the revenue. We annex a comparison of the total from the 1st of January for three years:—

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
January 1st to March 31st	$6,996,656 48	$9,295,257 30	$7,617,887 72
April 1st to June 30th	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16
July	4,210,115 95	3,558,400 12	3,240,787 18
Total since January 1st	$17,240,026 00	$20,211,065 72	$17,491,100 06

The revenue of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1852, is about $2,500,000 less than for the preceding year, as will be seen by the following comparative statement, to which we also annex a summary of the imports for the last four years, the figures for 1852 being estimated from the duties, in anticipation of the official returns:—

REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Customs.	Total.	Years.	Customs.	Total.
1852	$47,320,316	$49,728,009	1850	$39,668,686	$43,375,796
1851	49,017,567	52,312,979	1849	28,346,738	31,074,347

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM FOREIGN PORTS.

Years.	Dutiable.	Free.	Total.
1852	$178,000,000	$25,000,000	$203,000,000
1851	191,118,345	25,106,587	216,224,932
1850	155,427,936	22,710,382	178,138,318
1849	125,479,774	22,377,665	147,857,439

Considering the diminished imports, it would be but reasonable to expect a corresponding decline in the exports, but this has not thus far been realized, judging from the returns at the same port. The exports from New York to foreign ports for July have indeed fallen off from last year in the item of specie, but in the value of produce and merchandise there is no material difference.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR JULY.

Years.	Domestic produce.	Foreign dutiable.	Foreign free.	Specie.	Total.
1852	$2,965,542	$325,732	$20,759	$2,971,499	$6,283,530
1851	3,188,027	284,397	2,311	6,004,170	9,478,905
1850	3,574,260	413,671	17,563	1,518,080	5,523,574

Taking the total from January 1st, (exclusive of specie,) the value of goods exported from New York show a slight advance upon the amount for the corresponding period of 1851, and a considerable excess as compared with the same period of 1850.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 31.

Years.	Domestic produce.	Foreign dutiable.	Foreign free.	Specie.	Total.
1852	$25,111,363	$2,745,307	$541,978	$15,595,508	$43,994,156
1851	25,644,866	2,266,139	373,656	25,097,685	53,382,346
1850	22,491,133	2,411,578	444,533	3,971,812	29,319,056

It will be seen from this that the falling off from last year in shipments of specie amount to about nine-and-a-half millions of dollars, and this notwithstanding undiminished receipts from California. We annex a comparative summary of the total exports of merchandise, recapitulated from the above table:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS.

Years.	Specie.	Merchandise.	Total.
1852.....	$15,595,508	$28,398,648	$43,994,156
1851.....	25,097,685	28,284,661	53,382,346
1850.....	3,971,812	15,347,244	29,319,056

We continue our monthly table of the comparative exports to foreign ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce, showing the total from January 1st to August 20th, inclusive:—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots....bbls.	13,968	11,450	Naval Stores....bbls.	282,768	282,500
Pearls.....	1,333	481	*Oils*—		
Beeswax.....lbs	195,905	159,181	Whale..... galls.	831,367	30,912
Breadstuffs—			Sperm.....	277,005	448,896
Wheat flour ..bbls.	782,819	856,588	Lard	187,519	21,975
Rye flour	6,079	7,883	Linseed.....	4,718	9,731
Corn meal.....	30,197	33,076	*Provisions*—		
Wheat.....bush.	606,703	1,072,762	Pork .....bbls.	30,885	25,697
Rye.....	.....	236,460	Beef.....	22,596	34,866
Oats.....	2,658	8,053	Cut meats.....lbs.	2,721,722	1,190,302
Barley.....	.....	367	Butter	1,682,411	449,754
Corn.....	1,346,978	700,800	Cheese	2,755,493	551,456
Candles—Mould. bxs.	26,601	40,370	Lard	3,970,807	2,518,131
Sperm	1,601	2,669	Rice.....tcs.	19,976	22,378
Coal..... tons	3,517	26,431	Tallow.....lbs.	1,504,961	271,570
Cotton.....bales	227,065	273,051	Tobacco—Crude.pkgs.	11,437	16,887
Hay.....	4,354	6,393	Man'd...lbs.	2,273,798	2,583,799
Hops.....	128	482	Whalebone.....	1,126,549	577,636

There is considerable excitement in the market for breadstuffs, owing to the partial failure of the English wheat harvest, now thought to produce less than an average crop; and the prospect of damage to potatoes, which each succeeding arrival more fully confirms. The exports to supply the expected deficiency will be large for the coming month. It is well to notice the change in the description of breadstuffs shipped to English markets. During the "famine" year we shipped large quantities of Indian corn, intended for consumption in Ireland; ever since, the exports of this article have been gradually declining. It will be interesting to trace the progress of this decline, which has extended to all other ports, and we therefore annex a statement of the comparative shipments of the principal breadstuffs from New York for the last five years, which we have carefully compiled exclusively for this review:—

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS FROM NEW YORK.

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Flour.....bbls.	1,678,590	821,666	819,291	1,057,728	1,264,322
Wheat...bush.	2,114,792	680,587	752,318	690,056	1,468,465
Corn.....	6,193,902	4,565,501	4,237,973	2,471,871	1,605,674

It would seem from this, that while our flour and grain have been well received, corn has been gradually given up. As an article of human consumption, it is certainly less popular than wheat, and wheaten flour. There is also another change; so much of our flour has reached its destination in bad order, that the grain is now evidently preferred; and the orders for wheat are disproportionately increased. We give a comparison of the shipments of these three items from the 1st of January to the 20th of August in each of the last three years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Wheat flour.....bbls.	397,626	782,819	856,588
Wheat.....bush.	104,505	606,703	1,072,762
Corn.....	2,321,402	1,346,978	700,800

Thus we see that, while the export of flour has slightly increased from last year, that of wheat has been nearly doubled, and that of corn only about half as much, up to the present date. This difference will be still more perceptible as the season progresses. The late orders have been nearly all for wheat, and the clearances will now be quite large compared with the corresponding period of last year.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF NEW ORLEANS.

We are under obligations to W. H. GARLAND, of New Orleans, for a pamphlet, written by him, containing an expose of the financial affairs of that city, from which we gather the statements here presented:—

The indebtedness of New Orleans consists of two kinds:—1. That which was contracted before the division of the city into Municipalities, called the Old City Debt. 2. That which has been incurred by the Municipalities separately, since that division. The following is a statement of the Old Debt as it stood on the 8th November last:—

STATEMENT OF BONDS ISSUED FOR OLD CITY DEBTS AND OUTSTANDING ON NOV. 8, 1851.

Date.	Rate of interest.	When due and payable.	Interest a year.	Amount.
1830, May 1.....	6 per cent.	1850	$3,420	$57,000
1833, March 1.....	5 "	1851	8,850	177,000
1833, February 1.....	5 "	1853	7,500	150,000
1847, January 16.....	5 "	1854	450	9,000
1835, March 20	5 "	1855	450	9,000
1830, July 1.....	6 "	1855	6,000	100,000
1834, November 1.....	5 "	1855	17,500	350,000
1835, January 1.....	5 "	1859	5,000	100,000
1835, January 1.....	5 "	1860	5,000	100,000
1835, September 1	5 "	1860	5,000	100,000
1833, December 30.....	5 "	1863	10,000	200,000
1834, August 1.....	6 "	1864	21,540	359,000
1834, September 15	5 "	1864	2,250	45,000
1836, January 1.....	5 "	1866	25,000	500,000
1833, July 20.....	5 "	1873	18,200	364,000
1836, March 1	5 "	1876	2,300	46,000
			$138,460	$2,666,000
Interest coupons due and unpaid on the 8th November, 1851.....				202,065
Total of Old City Debt.....				$2,868,065

At the division of the city a sinking fund was created, with large assets, for the purpose of liquidating this debt, but through bad management and the changing vicissitudes of commercial revulsions, these assets have become almost worthless. With the exception of some $60,000 of available assets still in the hands of the liquidators, the amount that may be obtained from the sale of the Batture, and the contingent hope of realizing something from the donation by Stephen Girard of negroes and land on the Ouachita, the means of paying this debt will have to be drawn from the general resources of the city.

There may, however, be deducted from this debt a series of bonds, originally $500,000, issued to the Commercial Water Works, in exchange for an equal amount of the stock of the company. From the dividends arising from this stock, a portion of these bonds have been redeemed, and the amount remaining is $364,000, while the city still holds the $500,000 of stock in the water works. Although the market value of this stock is now only about $40 a share, it will undoubtedly increase in value so far as to be amply sufficient to meet the bonds for which it was exchanged. From the sale of the Batture, it is estimated, sufficient will be received to pay the interest past due, $202,065. These two sums amount together to $566,065, and reduce the debt to $2,302,000.

By an act of 8th March, 1836, the means of paying the interest on this debt were to be drawn from the several Municipalities in proportion to their respective resources, and not in proportion to their assessed wealth. The neglect of the Municipalities to respond to the requisition of the General Council for the payment of the interest of this debt, has had the effect to injure materially the credit of the city. The amount of the yearly interest is $138,460, and, as will be seen by the table, the interest for about a year and a half, $202,065, was remaining unpaid at the commencement of the present year, which, with $234,000 past due of the principal of the debt, makes the sum of $436,065 due to the holders of this stock. The neglect in question arises from no indisposition to meet the obligations which the city is so abundantly able to provide for, but is the result of the peculiar administration of her municipal affairs. The population of New Orleans is made up of classes not only differing from each other in language and manners, but confined according to these differences to particular sections, and constituting thus almost separate communities. Time and the genius of our institutions, it is admitted, are gradually wearing away these distinctions, but still they exist to a very considerable extent, with all their prejudices and influences. The prevalent feeling between the sections is a constant jealousy lest either one should acquire an undue influence, and should abuse its power by aggressions upon the others. To this sensitiveness, it has become necessary that the general principle, so much in favor as the conservator of the rights of the weak, representation based upon population, should bend—and hence the division of the city into Municipalities, supreme in certain matters within themselves, and among these, each liable only for such debt as it may itself contract. This is carrying into extended practice the principle involved in the old dogma of State Rights; and although this *may* be the best system that the city in question could adopt, under existing circumstances, it could not but be the occasion of serious inconveniences. Among others, is this very neglect, injurious alike to the city and to its creditors, of meeting punctually its obligations. The Mayor draws his warrant on the several Municipalities, and has done therein all that is required at his hands—farther authority in the matter he has none. The present Municipal Councils, not having contracted the debt themselves, and seeing that its adjustment is to pass through the Mayor's hands, profess to know little about the matter, and thus the government of the city fails of doing what it ought, in consequence of a *divided responsibility*, which is, of course, everywhere, *no* responsibility. The want of punctuality in the Municipalities gave rise to a system of giving twelve months' drafts upon them severally for the accrued interest; which drafts were paid or not, as circumstances would dictate. Against the injustice of this, no practical remedy has been found Undoubtedly, the evil will continue, getting more and more aggravated, until some change is made in the construction of the city government. A prostration of credit, and the inconveniences therefrom, might induce a temporary promptness on the part of the Municipal Councils, in furnishing their respective contributions, but the evil would be sure to recur when the spur was no longer felt, and must at last permanently affect the reputation of the city. Such a change, at least, should be effected as will establish sufficient *centralism* to prevent all considerations of the *general* interest from being swallowed up in the intense selfishness of a morbid sectionalism.

The other debt, attaching to the several Municipalities, and contracted since the division of the city, was, at the commencement of the present year, as follows:—

Municip.	Funded debt.	Floating debt.	Total.	Cash assets.	Net debt.
First..	$492,300 00	$664,256 80	$1,156,556 80	$114,564 37	$1,041,992 43
Second	1,749,660 00	1,011.650 98	2,761,310 98	463,262 32	2,298,048 66
Third..	636,480 00	263,705 37	900,185 37	....	900,185 37
	$2,878,440 00	$1,939,613 15	$4,818,053 15	$577,826 69	$4,240,226 46

The total liabilities of the city, exclusive of means directly available for payment, are—

Old City Debt	$2,302,000
Debts of Municipalities	4,240,226
Total	$6,542,226

Municipalities.	Real estate.	Slaves, etc.	Capital.	Total.
First	$17,449,300	$1,863,650	$2,584,400	$21,897,350
Second	30,195,710	2,071,760	7,169,595	39,437,065
Third	6,794,623	.....	.....	7,931,653
	$54,439,633	$3,935,410	$9,753,995	$69,266,068

Dividing the aggregate debt between the several Municipalities in proportion to their real estate, the following table will show the per centage on real estate in each Municipality, necessary to liquidate the debt—and it shows, also, upon the basis of the white population, the per capitum indebtedness of each Municipality:—

Municipalities.	Debt proper.	Proportion of old city debt.	Total.	Value of real estate.	Per centage.	White populat'n.	Per capitum tax.
First	$1,041,992	$737,850	$1,779,842	$17,449,300	$10.20	33,561	$53.01
Second	2,298,048	1,276,836	3,574,884	30,192,710	11.87	45,947	77.48
Third	900,185	287,314	1,187,499	6,794,623	17.47	19,890	59.70
	$4,240,225	$2,302,000	$6,542,225	$54,439,633	$11.92	99,298	$65.88¼

The per centage of tax necessary to pay this debt, it will be seen, is, on the basis of real estate, 11.92; if the whole assessed property be taken, the per centage would be 9.44.

In the tables following are shown the expenses of the city government, as estimated for the year 1852, independent of any payment on account of the principal or interest of the debt:—

EXPENSES OF CITY GOVERNMENT, ESTIMATED FOR 1852.

Municipalities.	Salaries of Mayor and Municipal officers.	Public schools.	Police.	Lighting the Municipality.
First	$39,139	$54,000	$55,000	$32,200
Second	50,000	94,000	100,000	45,000
Third	17,046	18,580	19,260	7,240
	$106,185	$166,580	$174,268	$84,440

Municipalities.	Fire companies.	House of Refuge.	Workhouse, C. prison, P. jail, and courts.	Inquests.
First	$10,000	.....	$16,000	.....
Second	31,000	$8,000	22,500	$5,000
Third	3,720	.....	2,067	1,500
	$44,720	$8,000	$40,567	$6,500

Municipalities.	Charity.	Commissions.	Board of Health.	Military companies.
First	$5,000	$7,000	$6,000	$2,000
Second	10,000	20,000	3,000	1,500
Third	800	5,480	500	.....
	$15,800	$32,480	$9,500	$3,500

Municipalities.	Repair of markets.	Draining.	Cleaning streets.	Repairs to wharves & levees.
First	$2,000	$12,650	$26,650	$55,300
Second	3,700	2,800	42,060	71,650
Third	.....	4,650	.....	9,009
	$5,700	$19,100	$68,710	$135,950

Municipalities.	Repairs to streets.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
First	$130,416	$49,000	$492,355
Second	58,580	47,000	615,791
Third	22,380	3,000	117,223
	$211,376	$99,000	$1,225,369

In the annexed statement are shown the revenues of the city from other sources than direct taxation:—

RECEIPTS OF THE MUNICIPALITIES OTHER THAN FROM DIRECT TAXATION.

Municipalities.	Markets.	Ferry.	Levee dues.	Cabarets, coffee-houses, etc.	Merchants, drays, etc.	Ground rent.	Parish jail.	Public schools.
First	$112,000	$1,650	$70,000	$50,000	$30,000	$7,000	$5,600	$20,000
Second	80,000	500	100,000	58,000	86,500	978	....	30,000
Third	15,000	3,075	27,000	36,000	17,500	700	200	15,000
	$217,000	$5,225	$197,000	$144,000	$134,000	$8,678	$5,800	$65,000

Total—First Municipality		$296,250
" Second Municipality		355,978
" Third Municipality		114,475
Total		$766,703

The alteration of the rate of the levee duties probably reduced the revenue from that source about $100,000 below what it would have been under the former rates.

Expenditures other than for debt	$1,225,369
Revenue other than from direct taxation	766,703
Balance	$458,666

This latter sum is, therefore, to be raised by direct taxation on real and personal estate, on account of the ordinary expenses of the year.

It is suggested by the author of the pamphlet from which these tables and the principal facts here embodied are drawn, that the whole debt of the city shall be consolidated so that there shall be but one species of obligation, and that to be represented by the bonds of the city of New Orleans. The debt thus consolidated will present all the guaranties that the city and people can give of its solvency and punctuality. Let authority, then, be given in an amended charter, to issue the bonds of the city at from 30 to 50 years, for the purpose of taking up the present indebtedness. In consolidating the debt let there be three series of bonds, marked A, B, and C, designating the debt respectively of each Municipality—the designation being made simply to mark the origin of the debt, and point out the source whence the means for the payment of interest and principal are to be drawn. An annual estimate is to be made of the amount necessary to pay the interest, and create a sinking fund for the liquidation of the series marked A, and this sum is to be assessed on the real estate of the First Municipality. A similar assessment in the Second Municipality is to meet the bonds B, and in the Third to meet the bonds C. To secure punctuality, it is proposed to deprive the several councils, by a provision in the charter, of the power to act upon other matters until they have passed the necessary ordinance for the protection of this debt; and that the executive department be impelled by strict penal enactments to a faithful discharge of its part of the duty. Thus will direct responsibility be attached to those with whom the power lies, and care and promptitude fully secured.

VALUE OF PROPERTY IN THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

Under the department of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the present month, devoted to "STATISTICS OF POPULATION," we have given from the official report from the Financial Secretary's office, (politely forwarded to the editor by D. McCULLOCH, Secretary to the Board of Statistics,) a complete view of the census of Nova Scotia, taken in 1851. From the same official source we derive the subjoined tabular statement of the value of property, taxation, &c., for the Province in 1851:—

VALUE OF PROPERTY AND ASSESSMENTS IN NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

Counties.	Probable value of real estate.	Assessed value of real estate.	Assessed val. of per'nal property.	Sum assess'd for county rates.	Sum assess'd for poor rates.	Highest rate for poor and county.	Lowest rate for poor & county.
Halifax.....	£1,893,887	£1,461,195	£1,134,912	...	...	.....	0 0 1
Lunenburg....	414,880	.....	.....	£350	£377	£3 10 0	0 2 0
Queens.....	252,506	.....	104,286	220	313	10 16 8	0 2 0
Shelburne	137,090	.....	.....	93	194	.....	.....
Yarmouth	286,703	357,415	348,000	98	530	16 8 4	0 0 10
Digby.....	281,173	150,667	34,713	118	226	.....	.....
Annapolis.....	454,624	313,560	56,568	181	658	3 17 6	0 0 2
Kings.....	618,166	582,988	173,556	235	435	3 15 0	0 0 9
Hants.....	585,809	.....	203,811	126	459	.....	.....
Cumberland...	590,224	500,741	112,610	119	222	.....	.....
Colchester.....	572,318	.....	114,954	304	288	3 5 0	0 0 4
Pictou	655,619	.....	91,880	456	...	.....	.....
Sydney	278,689	.....	.....	...	...	.....	.....
Guysboro'	166,361	.....	.....	207	372	5 1 0	0 1 0
Inverness.....	316,787	328,453	116,560	250	...	1 13 4	0 0 6
Richmond.....	127,096	.....	.....	194	...	.....	.....
Cape Breton }	419,041	.....	.....	...	...	.....	.....
Victoria.... }	.....	.....	.....	...	...	.....	.....
Total.....	£8,050,923						

CONDITION OF THE NORTH-WESTERN BANK OF VIRGINIA.

STATEMENT OF THE NORTH-WESTERN BANK OF VIRGINIA, INCLUDING ITS BRANCHES OF WELLSBURG, PARKERSBURG AND JEFFERSONVILLE, 1851–52.

RESOURCES.

	July 1, 1851.	Jan. 1, 1852.	April 1, 1852.	July 1, 1852.
Bills discounted.....	$1,661,453 33	$1,749,855 88	$1,766,690 87	$1,702,358 69
St'k of North-Western B'k	33,600 00	27,000 00	65,400 00	61,500 00
Stock of Wheeling and Belmont Bridge Co....	20,000 00	20,000 00	20,000 00	20,000 00
Other stocks.....	.....	5,000 00	5,000 00	5,000 00
Unpaid instalments on st'k subscribed.....	300 00	200 00	100 00	.....
Banking houses.....	23,792 44	30,024 37	32,182 02	35,448 84
Other real estate.....	26,870 13	10,440 00	10,440 00	10,590 00
Due by other banks..	285,648 38	161,272 81	178,102 62	312,325 57
Notes of other b'ks, checks and certificates of dep..	91,706 09	77,044 79	60,215 59	102,078 49
Coin.....	356,773 26	321,492 65	348,824 43	376,524 14
Expense account.....	7,875 70	7,639 93	3,787 05	9,865 96
In transit between bank and branches.....	2,010 76	13,421 45	.....	.....
Total.....	$2,510,030 09	$2,423,391 88	$2,490,742 58	$2,635,520 69

LIABILITIES.

	July 1, 1851.	Jan. 1. 1852.	April 1, 1852.	July 1, 1852.
Capital stock	$792,100 00	$792,100 00	$792,100 00	$794,100 00
Circulation of bank and branches	1,336,088 00	1,320,604 00	1,397,453 00	1,432,272 00
Due Depositors	239,291 68	187,846 23	175,125 64	236,386 67
Due other banks	36,617 24	29,873 65	39,866 98	49,294 14
Discount account	36,502 07	52,796 54	23,610 31	49,017 25
Exchange and collection account	5,752 30	9,041 75	4,150 77	7,442 74
Rent account	434 31	648 23	.. ....	.....
Contingent fund	53,244 49	30,481 48	52,134 94	52,938 65
In transit between bank and branches	.....	.....	6,300 94	14,069 24
Total	$2,510,030 09	$2,423,391 88	$2,490,742 58	$2,635,520 69

EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851.

STATEMENT OF THE EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE.

ANNUAL AVERAGE DURING EACH ADMINISTRATION.

Administration.	Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous.	Military service.	Revolutionary and other pensions.	Indian department.
Washington	$633,152 35	$1,105,503 34	$72,507 62	$27,251 72
John Adams	1,186,236 50	2,019,187 67	89,169 26	24,799 97
Jefferson	2,049,057 69	1,334,528 63	77,346 85	141,150 00
Madison	1,899,201 40	11,287,490 44	96,707 27	260,608 01
Monroe	3,295,303 51	4,596,847 73	1,535,417 78	438,360 24
John Quincy Adams	2,934,562 96	3,671,907 74	1,173,029 20	733,315 84
Jackson	4,259,584 28	6,263,460 29	2,182,365 78	1,701,285 63
Van Buren	7,193,858 70	10,648,054 49	2,643,633 10	3,678,234 91
Harrison and Tyler	5,528,600 62	5,884,750 96	1,659,603 98	1,387,210 04
Polk	6,17›,532 96	20,122,220 46	1,767,815 22	1,163,564 56
Taylor and Fillmore	15,576,777 62	12,057,174 65	1,647,746 68	1,828,084 01

Administration.	Naval establishment.	Expenditures, exclusive of public debt.	Public debt, paid.	Total expenditure.
Washington	$106,768 29	$1,936,387 31	$4,511,619 61	$6,497,956 92
John Adams	2,017,694 38	5,337,087 79	4,739,490 67	10,076,578 46
Jefferson	1,535,665 33	5,137,598 58	8,148,299 81	13,285,898 39
Madison	4,541,637 99	18,085,618 10	10,428,617 19	28,514,235 29
Monroe	3,181,996 91	13,045,438 69	12,670,763 90	25,716,202 59
John Quincy Adams	3,862,662 55	12,625,480 82	11,325,883 35	23,951,364 17
Jackson	3,986,375 24	18,224,095 91	9,361,800 48	27,585,896 39
Van Buren	6,268,621 55	30,432,450 29	5,208,036 07	35,640,486 36
Harrison and Tyler	6,156,057 64	20,616,198 76	7,007,429 76	27,623,628 13
Polk	7,504,468 18	33,777,221 61	7,189,315 12	40,966,536 73
Taylor and Fillmore	8,896,976 35	36,557,595 20	*15,265,451 63	51,823,846 20

RAISING MONEY BY PAWNBRONING IN IRELAND.

Pawbrokers' tickets issued in Limerick last year	634,392
Amount lent	£85,690
In Dublin the amount lent was	560,492
In Cork	192,795
In Belfast	125,740
In Waterford	85,690

* This includes the average annual amounts of $5,896,000, paid to Mexico under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

The following statement shows the revenues of the United States for the four quarters of the fiscal year 1851 and 1852, ending June 30 :—

	Mineral.	Lands.	Customs.	Total.
September.....	$249,627	$581,892	$14,754,909	$12,586,428
December	34,289	585,243	9,601,500	10,228,639
March	31,860	624,355	12,109,761	12,765,976
June	44,873	247,947	10,854,146	11,146,966
Total year.....	$360,649	$2,044,037	$47,320,316	$49,728,009
Total 1850	1,847,218	1,359,394	39,668,686	43,375,798

This shows an increase in the items of regular revenue; but the customs of the quarter show a decline of $596,001 from the corresponding quarter of last year, and the lands have declined half that amount. The expenditure of the government has, however, for the quarter been less, by nearly one-half, than that for the corresponding quarter last year.

PRICES OF MANUFACTURING STOCK IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following table, prepared by JOSEPH G. MARTIN, Stock and Exchange Broker, Boston, for the *Evening Gazette*, includes twenty of the most prominent stocks. It will be seen that all but two have declared dividends within the time embraced in the table, making the present value stand the amount of the dividend better in comparison with six months since :—

	February 25.		August 21.		Last dividend.	
	Offered.	Asked.	Offered.	Asked.	Per ct.	
Appleton.....	675	700	880	895	3	June.
Amoskeag.....	965	910	1,040	1,045	4	August.
Atlantic Mills	600	650	840	850	*	
Bay State Mills.....	670	715	785	800	5	February.
Boott Mills.....	800	...	950	980	3	May.
Cocheco, (par 500)	475	475	500	506	4	July.
Dwight.....	600	625	...	900	3	May.
Great Falls, (par 200)	183	185	202	205	3	August.
Hamilton	740	750	920	960	4	June.
Laconia	650	700	900	950	4	August.
Lancaster, (par 450).....	300	325	350	375	3	July.
Lawrence.....	810	900	950	1,000	3*	March.
Massachusetts Mills	750	775	980	990	4	July.
Merrimack.....	1,130	1,140	1,240	1,250	5	May.
Nashua, (par 500).....	380	...	430	450	3	June.
Stark	550	600	880	..	3	July.
Suffolk.....	675	700	960	1,010	4	August.
Thorndike	595	595	...	800	5*	January, 1851.
Tremont.....	535	...	770	950	3	August.
York.....	750	840	900	940	3	May.

VALUE OF A MUTILATED BANK NOTE.

A merchant of Pittsburg sued the Exchange Bank of that city for refusing to redeem a $5 note on the bank, of which one-fifth part had been cut out. It was contended on the part of the bank, that by cutting from several in the same manner, a new note may be formed, and the bank defrauded of the value of it. The judge before whom the case was tried, decided that the prosecutor was entitled to only four dollars, as the value of the note, and consequently rendered judgment in his favor to that amount.

* The Atlantic Mills have made no regular dividends since going into operation. They are now doing a good business, and having paid up previous losses, may declare a dividend in November next. The Lawrence Manufacturing Co. will doubtless pay a dividend in September. The Thorndike Manufacturing Co. have made no dividend since January, 1851, but the prospect is somewhat favorable for one in January next.

CONSUMPTION OF GOLD IN THE ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.

The following curious statistics, relative to the consumption of gold, were stated in a lecture lately delivered at the Geological Society at London :—

The entire amount of gold in circulation is said to be £48,000,000; of which the wear and waste is stated to be 3½ per cent annually, or £1,680,000. The consumption of gold in arts and manufactures is as follows :—

In the United Kingdom	$2,500,000
France	1,000,000
Switzerland	450,000
Other parts of Europe	1,600,000
United States	500,000
Total	£6,050,000

In Birmingham alone there is a weekly consumption of gold for chains only amounting to 1,000 ounces. The weekly consumption for gold-leaf in London is 400 ounces; in other places in Great Britain, 184 ounces.

One of the potteries in Staffordshire consumes £3,500 worth of gold annually in gilding; and the whole consumption for gilding porcelain in England is estimated at about 8,500 ounces annually.

THE SALARIES OF FOREIGN MINISTERS.

GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following are the salaries paid to their ministers, at several points, by Great Britain, France, and the United States :—

	Great Britain.	France.	United States.
London	.....	$28,500	$9,000
Paris	$37,700	.....	9,000
Washington	21,800	11,400	....
St. Petersburg	29,000	22,880	9,000
Vienna	24,200	17,100	4,500
Madrid	24,200	15,200	9,000
Berlin	24,200	13,300	9,000
Rio Janeiro	19,360	11,400	9,000
Constantinople	33,900	15,200	6,000

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING AUGUST 2, 1852.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, August 2, 1852.

Amount outstanding of the several issues prior to 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office	$107,911 64
Amount outstanding of the issues of 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office	12,250 00
Amount outstanding of the issue of 28th January, 1847, as per records of this office	8,350 00
Total	$128,511 64
Deduct cancelled notes in the hands of accounting officers, all under acts prior to 22d July, 1846	150 00
Total	$128,361 64

FOUR BANK NOTES OF ONE MILLION STERLING.

What would be the sensation of an individual accustomed to handling one dollar relief notes, to receive a bank-bill for one million sterling! The Bank of England, it appears, issued four notes of that denomination, and after these four were engraved, the plates were destroyed. Of these impressions the Rothschilds have one, the late Mr. Coutts had another, the Bank of England the third, and Mr. Samuel Rogers, the poet and banker, now decorates his parlor with the fourth, suspended in a gold frame.

BRANCH MINT OF UNITED STATES IN CALIFORNIA.

The following Act, establishing a Branch Mint of the United States, in California, passed during the First Session of the Thirty-second Congress, was approved by the President, July, 3d, 1852:—

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A BRANCH OF THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES IN CALIFORNIA.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that a branch of the mint of the United States be established in California, to be located by the Secretary of the Treasury, for the coinage of gold and silver.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That suitable buildings shall be procured or erected, for the purpose of carrying on the business of said branch mint; and the following officers shall be appointed as soon as public interests may require their services, upon the nomination of the President, [by] and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to wit: one superintendent, one treasurer, one assayer, one melter and refiner, and one coiner. And the said superintendent shall engage and employ as many clerks and as many subordinate workmen and servants as shall be provided for by law; and until the thirteenth of June, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-five, the salaries of said officers and clerks shall be as follows: to the superintendent and to the treasurer, the sum of four thousand and five hundred dollars each; to the assayer, to the melter and refiner, and to the coiner, the sum of three thousand dollars each; to the clerks, the sum of two thousand dollars each; to the subordinate workmen, such wages and allowances as are customary and reasonable, according to their respective stations and occupations.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the officers and clerks to be appointed under this act shall take an oath or affirmation before some judge of the United States, or the Supreme Court of the State of California, faithfully and diligently to perform the duties thereof, and shall each become bound to the United States of America, with one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the director of the mint and the Secretary of the Treasury, or the District Attorney of the United States for the State of California, with condition for the faithful and diligent performance of their offices.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the general direction of business of said branch of the mint of the United States, shall be under the control and regulation of the director of the mint at Philadelphia, subject to the approbation of the Secretary of the Treasury; and for that purpose, it shall be the duty of the said director to prescribe such regulations, and require such returns periodically and occasionally, as shall appear to him to be necessary for the purpose of carrying into effect the intention of this act in establishing the said branch; also, for the purpose of discriminating the coin which shall be stamped at said branch and at the mint itself; and also, for the purpose of preserving uniformity of weight, form, and fineness, in the coins stamped at said branch; and for that purpose, to require the transmission and delivery to him at the mint, from time to time, of such parcels of the coinage of said branch as he shall think proper, to be subjected to such assays and tests as he shall direct.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all the laws and parts of laws now in force for the regulation of the mint of the United States, and for the government of the officers and persons employed therein, and for the punishment of all offences connected with the mint or coinage of the United States, shall be, and they are hereby declared to be in full force in relation to the branch of the mint by this act established, so far as the same may be applicable thereto.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That no permanent location of said mint shall be made, or buildings erected therefore, until the State of California shall, by some law or other public act, pledge the faith of the State that no tax shall, at any time, be laid, assessed, or collected by the said State, or under the authority of the said State, on the said branch mint, or on the buildings which may be erected therefor, or on the fixtures and machinery which may be used therein, or on the lands on which the same may be placed; but nothing in this section contained shall be understood as implying an admission that any such power of taxation rightfully exists.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the said branch mint shall be the place of deposit for the public moneys collected in the custom-houses in the State of California, and for such other public moneys as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct; and the treasurer of said branch mint shall have the custody of the same, and shall per-

form the duties of an assistant treasurer, and for that purpose, shall be subject to all the provisions contained in an act entitled "An act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, and safe keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved August the sixth, one thousand eight hundred and forty-six, which relates to the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That, if required by the broker, gold in grain or lumps shall be refined, assayed, cast into bars or ingots, and stamped in said branch mint, or in the mint of the United States, or any of its branches, in such a manner as may indicate the value and fineness of the bar or ingot, which shall be paid for by the owner or holder of such bullion, at such rates and charges, and under such regulations, as the director of the mint, under the control of the Secretary of the Treasury, may from time to time establish.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That so soon as the said branch mint is established in the State of California, and public notice shall be given thereof in the mode to be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury, then so much of the act making appropriations for the civil and diplomatic expenses of the government for the year ending thirtieth June, eighteen hundred and fifty-one, and for other purposes, as provides for the appointments of a United States assayer, and the contracting for the assaying and fixing the value of gold in grain or lumps, and for forming the same into bars, be, and the whole of the clause containing said provisions shall be hereby repealed.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That before the Secretary of the Treasury shall procure or erect the buildings provided for in the second section of this act, or commence operations under any of the provisions of the same, at San Francisco, State of California, it shall be his duty to make a contract or contracts, for the erection of said buildings, and procuring the machinery necessary for the operations of the mint, at a sum or sums which shall not in the whole exceed the sum of three hundred thousand dollars, which said contract or contracts shall be secured by good and sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the said Secretary of the Treasury and the President of the United States.

WILL GOLD DEPRECIATE?

[FROM THE GLASGOW EXAMINER.]

In a former number we stated that the production of the precious metals had risen from eleven millions in 1848 to twenty-seven millions in 1850, thirty-four millions in 1851, and this year, there was every reason to expect, they would amount to forty-three millions, being a four-fold increase in as many years. The greater part of this increase is in gold, for, while only four millions were produced in 1848, the production in 1851 swelled to twenty-five millions, and they are annually and rapidly increasing.

What has hitherto made gold so valuable? It has been its scarcity, and the quantity of labor required to produce it. Limitation of supply has imparted a high value to this metal, and whenever it becomes of easy access, and abundant, it is certain to fall in price. Diamonds alone are more valuable in price, entirely the result of their being scarcer, as not six are in existence above an ounce each in weight, and the King of Persia possesses a bracelet worth a million sterling, because it includes two of these. Were a locality discovered where they could be obtained as abundantly as acorns, they would be reduced to a mere nominal value, and be in the possession of all. Take, for another example, the article of guano, which, though a great descent from gold, illustrates our principle. About ten years ago it was only procurable from Peru, and was sold at about twenty pounds the ton; large deposits were discovered at Ichaboe, on the west coast of Africa, and, as a consequence, the price fell to from six to eight pounds. Apply this principle of scarcity to whatever commodity we think proper, the results will be found, in every case, to be the same; while abundance as uniformly produces an opposite result.

As a natural induction from these premises, we may confidentially infer, that gold, owing to its great abundance, must speedily fall in price. The fall may not be sudden, but may spread itself over a number of years, and the effects will not be so marked as they would have been, were its value reduced in a convulsive manner. There is a difficulty in connection with this subject, which it is not easy to remove, and on which the most contradictory opinions are entertained. By act of Parliament the Bank of England is compelled to give £3 17s. 10½d. for every ounce of gold offered to it for sale, and it is a general opinion that the Bank will be relieved from this liability, and

allowed to diminish the price which is now the standard. Those persons, who so argue, refer to the fluctuations in the price of gold during the war, and affirm, that from 1811 to 1815 it varied in price from £4 2s. to £5 10s. the ounce, and in the latter year alone, while in May it was £5 6s., in December it had fallen to £4 2s. However, we were placed in quite different circumstances at that period to what we are now, for when the war was carried on, large supplies of gold were required for exportation to pay our soldiers, and also as subsidies to the European powers to enable them successfully to repel the inroads of Napoleon; hence it became scarce and dear; but at the present time we have attained a state of complete surfeit, and scarcely know what to do with our superabundant supplies. Independent of the scarceness or abundance of gold, however, there is a want of definiteness in the ideas of those who conceive that a lower price will be given for gold. What is the obligation of the Bank of England? Simply to return weight for weight for what is deposited with it, or its equivalent in bank-notes, payable on demand. It is a matter of perfect indifference what specific value is attached to the ounce of gold—as the Bank can neither gain nor lose by the transaction, being only bound to return what they had received, but with the assumption of another form. As a commercial community, we must possess a standard of value, that our various transactions may be balanced and regulated in an exact manner, and we have chosen gold for this purpose, from its compactness and comparative scarcity, and therefore value, as the great regulator of our exchanges. It is a mere matter of convenience, and we are almost singular in adopting this standard, as the other nations of Europe, and also the United States of America, have chosen a silver standard. The islanders in the Indian Archipelago have shells, and in Abyssinia they have salt to serve the same purpose.

It is, however, apparently contradictory to assert that the standard of gold will remain unchanged, and at the same time become depreciated; but our meaning will be better understood, by affirming, that while gold retains a fixed value, the price of all other commodities and productions will be enhanced in relation to it. Supposing gold becomes, in the course of six years, depreciated to the extent of 25 per cent, and supposing pig iron to be now worth forty shillings the ton, it will at that period bring fifty shillings. During the interval, the labor required to produce gold having diminished, has cheapened it to that extent, and the labor required to produce pig iron having remained stationary, has resulted in this striking change. The real value of gold has diminished, but its nominal value, or its exchangeable value, is unaltered, and hence the value of all other commodities will be enhanced in their relation to gold as a fixed and unchangeable standard.

It may illustrate our subject still better if we affirm as a fact, that during the last thirty years the real value of gold has increased 25 per cent. Though nominal, its value is the same, for its standard price is unaltered, yet its ability to employ labor, to purchase commodities, to command productions, has very greatly augmented. In that interval our national taxation has undergone a diminution to the ext nt of almost twenty millions, and the reduction has chiefly taken place by repealing or reducing taxes upon articles of consumption, which has considerably reduced their prices; tea, coffee, sugar, and corn, have all fallen in price, or, in other words, a sovereign will command almost 50 per cent more of these commodities at the present time, than it could do in 1820. In manufactured articles, whether of cotton, silk, or worsted, a similar, and as great a reduction has occurred in their relation to gold as a standard of value. Money has been continually enhancing its importance, and our large capitalists have increased their stores without a risk incurred, or an intelligent effort. It inspired the deepest fear for our productive classes to anticipate this process to be continued for another quarter of a century, but California and Australia have opened their golden treasures when the clouds were dark and lowering, and hope was almost about taking her departure—they have arrested the cheapening process, or in clearer language, are cheapening gold, and bringing it to a level with other commodities—which event will introduce an unexpected but bright day in our history.

We have shown that gold, while it maintains its present standard of value, will also, owing to its abundance, fall in price, or that it will require a greater quantity of it to purchase our products than it does at present; we maintain this to be an established and incontrovertible fact from our commercial history during the past thirty years, in which we find that gold, though always of the same standard of value, has really increased in price, for its power in purchasing our products has been greatly augmented; the large supplies we are now receiving will equalize the relative value of all these articles, much to our national advantage.

THE MINTS OF FRANCE.

The most important and best conducted mint out of Paris is at Strasbourg. At both these places the sinking is done by means of steam. The other French mints are at Bordeaux, Rouen, Lille, Lyons, and Marseilles. While upon this subject, it may not be amiss to give the following official information:—

By a law of the 26th December, 1827, a central commission, instituted at Paris, overlooks all the operations of the mint, decides the value of the different pieces, and allows none to be put in circulation which are not perfectly good. The directors of the mints do the business, however, on their own account, and are paid by the government according to the amount of coinage. In addition to the coining of money, the mints strike off an immense number of medals, sometimes for the government, but in most instances for private individuals. At the commencement of the fourteenth century the Paris Mint was situated in the *Rue de la Monnaie*, a locality now known as the *Rue Boucher*. By a decree of Louis XV., dated in 1768, the old mint, being in a state of decay, was ordered to be demolished, and two mansions, known as the *Grand et Petit Hotel de Conti*, together with several houses adjoining, were purchased by the government, upon the site of which was built the present mint. The administration of the mint comprises at Paris:—1. The coinage of money. 2. The striking of medals. 3. The fabrication of dies and instruments used at the mint. 4. The manufacture of postage-stamps. 5. A bureau for assaying. The *personnel* of the administration and the *agents du controle* are paid by the government. The tariff of charges must be approved by the Minister of Finances. In 1847, the amount of money coined in Paris was 85,991,177 francs; 7,706,020 francs in gold, and 78,285,157 francs in silver. The charges allowed to the director were 804,423 francs. The number of clerks was 10; the number of workmen varied from 55 to 108. In 1848, the amount of money coined was 159,514,985 francs; 39,697,740 francs in gold, 119,731,095 francs in silver, and 86,150 francs in copper. The charges allowed to the director for this year were 1,319,916 francs. The number of clerks employed was 14; the number of workmen from 65 to 125. In 1847, medals were struck off to the amount of 433,521 francs; namely, 107,021 francs in gold; 295,597 francs in silver; 30,759 francs in copper; 144 francs in *platina*. The cost of fabrication was 69,915 francs. The number of clerks was 4; that of workmen from 28 to 35. In 1848, medals were struck off to the value of 224,887 francs; namely, 38,093 francs in gold; 167,559 francs in silver; 18,919 francs in copper; 316 francs in platina. The cost of manufacture was 38,930 francs. The number of clerks was 4; the number of workmen from 22 to 30. The salaries of the clerks vary from 1,000 to 4,000 francs per year; the wages of the workmen from 3 to 8 francs per day. In 1848, the amount paid for engraving, sinking dies, &c., was 52,260 francs. In this department the number of persons employed in 1848 was 19. The *chef d'atelier* received 3,400 francs per year; one engraver received 2,400 francs per year; another 1,800 francs per year; another (working by the piece) 2,400 francs; one forger 8 francs per day; another 6 francs; and the rest of the workmen from 3 to 5½ francs per day.

The *ateliers* for the manufacture of postage-stamps was opened in December, 1848. The number of persons employed is 11, who gain from 3 to 6 francs per day. This department is under the management of the Assistant-Engraver of the mint, who receives a franc-and-a-half per thousand for the stamps, he furnishing the wood upon which they are engraved, and paying the workmen.

The Bureau of Assay is managed by the Assayer-in-Chief, who receives his pay from the charge which the law allows him to make upon the articles assayed. The amount of gold and silver assayed in 1848 was 4,500,000 francs of the former, and 9,000,000 francs of the latter. The number of persons employed was 16, of whom one assistant-assayer gained 2,800 francs per year; six assistant-assayers 1,800 francs; six others from 1,250 to 1,650 francs; one clerk 1,250 francs; another clerk 950 francs; and one cutter 1,100 francs.

THE BOARD OF BROKERS.

The proposition to found a new Board of Brokers in New York, says the *Mercantile Journal*, makes sure progress, and although that progress is slow, the scheme will shortly assume public importance. Complaint has long been made that the proceedings of the present body are despotic, and that their customary mode of carrying on

business with closed doors creates a mystery and a monopoly which the public good demands should be abolished. On none of the commercial marts of Europe, with the exception of London, are the sales of the Stock Exchange people conducted with a privacy restricted to the members of the Board, and it must be conceded, the peculiar constitution of that body in some measure justifies the exclusion practiced by them. Although the Royal Exchange has for centuries been considered the focus of the great monetary, exchange, and commercial operations of the kingdom, the mode of doing business has varied with the change of the times; and the ancient custom of the merchants of a particular nation or trade having possession of a certain part of the area called *a walk* has fallen into desuetude. The great bulk of the merchants are now divided into classes, each of whom possess an exchange or mart, exclusively occupied or devoted to their peculiar branch of Commerce; thus, in London, there is a Stock Exchange, the Corn Exchange, the Coal Exchange, a Shipping and Insurance Exchange, (*Lloyd's Rooms,*) and subsidiary Halls and Sales Rooms, and Coffee Houses, where the merchants congregate and have desks; and where the large sales of foreign produce, wool, &c., periodically take place.

The stock operations in London have only assumed their present importance since the middle of the seventeenth century, when the business of dealing in securities was separated from that of banking. The market, for a series of years after its institution, was held at various places in the Royal Exchange and its neighborhood. In 1801, the vast growth of the transactions induced the brokers to seek a permanent location, when the present building in Bartholomew Lane, was erected by subscription. The transactions of the brokers are usually divided into three branches—English, (for stocks and Exchequer bills;) Foreign, (stocks;) and the Share Market—these branches are called Houses. The members are of two classes—Brokers and Jobbers—and the business, as in this city, consists of two kinds—genuine and speculative—the former for money and the latter for time. A jobber is a capitalist who usually keeps a large amount of stocks on hand, and is always ready to sell in any desired quantity, thereby saving time and trouble both to the broker and the party desiring the investment. The members of the Stock Exchange are subjected to a rigid discipline, by a committee elected by themselves. A candidate for membership must be recommended by members, who attest that they have known him for an honorable man for more than two years, and they are required to give security for him for a certain period of time. The committee assist in winding up the affairs of members who are defaulters upon the market; they also act as arbitrators in any difference arising among the members; and as no member is allowed to be a partner in any other business, few losses are suffered by the members from each other. It is mostly the brokers who suffer from their outside connections. No member who fails to meet his engagements is allowed to appear in the house, until his creditors have received a stipulated composition, and the names of members who are defaulters, on the stated "settling" or "account days," are chalked on a black-board, exposed in the hall, which constitutes the Stock Exchange method of expulsion. The Board are munificent contributors to public charities, and have a fund for decayed members, which is liberally supported. Strangers are not permitted to enter the Stock Exchange, and the minor speculators assemble at the Hall of Commerce, in the adjacent street.

From the foregoing it will be perceived that the Committee of the London Stock Exchange, in the supervision which they exercise over the business conduct and character of their members, furnish the best and most valid reason for their exclusion of the uninitiated. The same causes do not exist in New York, and we have yet to learn the propriety of the course adopted by the present Board.

LOUISIANA BANKS AND LOANS.

The new constitution recently adopted by the Louisiana Convention, contains the following provisions relative to banking and State loans:—

"Corporations with banking or discounting privileges may be either created by special acts, or formed under general laws: but the Legislature shall, in both cases, provide for the registry of all bills and notes issued or put in circulation as money, and shall require ample security for the redemption of the same in specie.

"The Legislature shall have no power to pass any law sanctioning in any manner, directly or indirectly, the suspension of specie payments by any person, association, or corporation, issuing bank-notes of any description.

"In case of insolvency of any bank or banking association, the billholders thereof

shall be entitled to preference in payment over all other creditors of such bank or association."

The following resolution passed the convention by a vote of one hundred and three yeas to five nays:—

"Resolved, That when the Legislature shall contract a debt to an amount exceeding $100,000, except in case of war, to repel an invasion, or suppress insurrection, it shall, in the law creating the debt, provide the means for payment of the current interest and the principal when it shall become due, and the law shall be irrepealable until principal and interest are paid."

The new constitution thus stops the very proposal for repudiation of State debts in the Legislature.

THE NORTH BRANCH LOAN.

The bids for the State loan of $850,000 authorized by the last Legislature of Pennsylvania for the completion of the North Branch Canal, were opened at Harrisburg on Saturday, June 12th, 1852, and the loan was allotted to the most favorable bidders. The successful parties were Charles Henry Fisher, of Philadelphia; Duncan, Sherman & Co., of New York, and George Peabody, of London. They took the whole loan, at par, as follows: $200,000 at 4½ per cent, interest per annum; $650,000 at 5 per cent interest per annum.

The abatement of interest on this amount makes the bid equal to a premium of about 1.90 for the whole loan at 5 per cent per annum. The whole of it was taken on foreign account, and it may be considered a most fortunate allotment for the State, and a new proof of the public confidence, both at home and abroad, in the credit of Pennsylvania. The successful bidders also offered to take the whole amount of the loan as follows:—

$450,000 at 5 per cent, at 101 77-100 premium.
$400,000 at 5 " at 102 03-100 "

This amounts to about the same thing as the former bid, and makes it about equal to a premium of 1.90 on a 5 per cent loan.

ORIGIN OF COINS.

The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, has the following on the origin of coins:—

The rare beauty of the World's Fair medals, one of which we inspected last week, suggested a train of reflections on the history of medals and coins, and the means of coining, which it may be worth while, perhaps, to lay before our readers.

In the early ages of mankind, all traffic, as is well known, was conducted by means of barter. The herdsman exchanged his cattle for goods, or the merchant his goods for food to eat. But such a rude condition of affairs could not, it is clear, continue long; and the necessities of mankind, therefore, led to the substitution of a medium of exchange, or representative of value. The precious metals, from their intrinsic worth as well as their portable character, naturally suggested themselves for this purpose. At first, however, they were used in simple bars, without even stamp or coinage, and were, in such cases necessarily weighed, and often assayed, at every transfer. But this being found inconvenient, the expedient was hit upon of authenticating the weight and standard by a mark. Afterwards that the needs of Commerce might still further be consulted, the bars were made of various sizes. In the end, still further to impress the character of a legalized currency on the gold, silver, bronze, or copper employed, appropriate shapes, differing from those of the simple bar, were selected, the circular form of the present coin being that most generally adopted.

It was not always, however, that money was made round. Our British ancestors, prior to the invasion of Julius Cæsar, employed rings, sometimes singly, but oftener made into a chain, for currency. Large quantities of this species of coin have been dug up in England, Ireland, Wales, and Scotland. The smallest piece of money of this description, which has yet been discovered, is a gold ring weighing half a pennyweight. But others containing three times this weight, or five, ten, ten, sixteen, or twenty-two times this weight, up to the weight of a pound troy, have also been discovered; thus proving that the rings were not intended for ornaments but for

currency. Even among the Romans, circular coins were not in use until the time of Servius Tullius, and in Great Britain they were not employed till some time after the conquest by Cæsar. Of all ancient nations, the Greeks produced the most beautiful coins—those of the Romans not being particularly elegant till a late period in their history. The method of stamping the piece of money was simple. Usually the blow, which gave the impress, was struck by a hammer; and, at first, the die was cut in the face of the instrument itself. So late as two centuries ago, the coining of money, even in England, was conducted in a comparatively rude manner; and many a Spanish quarter, yet in circulation, bears decisive evidence of uncouth coining.

Even at this day, the coined money of Europe generally, is disgraceful to art, and is frequently basely alloyed. The exceptions are the gold and silver pieces of England, France, Belgium, and Prussia. Our own coins are not so good as they might be, a fact which any person may verify by comparing them with well executed medals—that struck in honor of Mr. Clay, or those issued at the World's Fair, for instance. Some of the finest coins and medals ever executed were those issued by the Emperor Napoleon. Generally, however, the European coins are as much inferior to those of the United States, as these latter are to the coins of England or France. The worst executed coins, among civilized nations, are those of Mexico and the South American States generally.

A word more and we shall have "coins" enough, at least for one reading, on coins and coining. Money is a word, we are told by Chambers, derived from the temple of Jupiter *Moneta*, where a metallic currency was first struck by the ancients. Cash comes from the French word *caisse*, a coffer or chest in which money is kept. And pecuniary is derived from *pecus*, the Latin for a flock or herd of animals, these being in the earlier ages the equivalents for money.

THE EARLY DISCOVERY OF COAL.

Bituminous coal, or sea coal, was known upwards of a thousand years ago, in the year of our Lord 853, but did not come into general use until the 16th century, and was not used in the manufacture of iron until the 17th century. Anthracite coal came gradually into use so late as the 19th century, and was not used as fuel in the manufacture of iron until about 16 years ago.

So early as 1790 anthracite coal was known to abound in the county of Schuylkill, in the State of Pennsylvania, but it being a different quality from that known as sea coal, or bituminous coal, and being hard of ignition, it was deemed useless until the year 1795, when a blacksmith of Pennsylvania, named Whetstone, brought it into notice. His success in burning it induced persons to dig for it, but when found, every person connected with the enterprise had to experiment on its combustion, and vain were the attempts to burn it by the majority of them, and all came to the conclusion that it would not come into general use.

About the year 1800, Mr. Morris, who had a large tract of land in Schuylkill County, Pennsylvania, procured a quantity of coal therefrom, and took it to Philadelphia City, but he was unable with all his heroic exertions to bring it into notice, and abandoned all his plans. From that time until 1806 it was talked about as a humbug; when accidently a bed of coal was found in digging a tale race for a water wheel for a forge, which induced another blacksmith, David Berlin, to make a trial of it. His success was generally made known, which induced others to try to burn Pennsylvania coal.

THE BONDS OF THE PLANTERS' BANK OF MISSISSIPPI.

The following is the Act passed by the late Legislature of Mississippi, with regard to the bonds issued by the State on account of the Planters' Bank:—

AN ACT TO SUBMIT TO THE PEOPLE THE QUESTION OF THE PAYMENT OF THE BONDS OF THIS STATE ISSUED ON ACCOUNT OF THE PLANTERS' BANK OF THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI.

SEC. 1. Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Mississippi: That it shall be the duty of the returning officer at all the election precincts of this State at the

next election, to propound the question to each voter where he presents his vote: "Will you submit to a direct tax to the payment of the Planters' Bank Bonds, issued by the State on account of the Planters' Bank of the State of Mississippi," and who shall keep a correct record of the number of those who shall answer in the affirmative, and of those who shall answer in the negative; and make due returns thereof to the general returning officer of the county in which said election shall be holden, and it is hereby made the duty of said general returning officer in this State to transmit to the Secretary of the State, within ten days thereafter a true return of said vote in their respective counties.

SEC. 2. Provides for the publication of the Act.

SEC. 3. Be it further enacted: That unless a majority of the whole number of votes cast for election at the said presidential election, shall be cast against the payment of said bonds, the result of said vote shall be instructive to the next legislature to provide the most suitable plan for the payment of said bonds.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF FRANCE IN 1852.

The official returns of the trade and navigation of France, with her colonies and foreign countries, during the first six months of the present year, have just been published, the results of which, as compared with the same period in the previous year, are very favorable. Thus, the total duties received upon importations have been 69,002,964f.; in 1851 they amounted to 54,655,161f.; and in 1850 to 57,561,643f. The receipts for the first six months of this year, therefore, show an excess of 14,347,803f. over the corresponding period of 1851, and of 11,441,321f. over that of 1850. A very large increase is shown in the importation of the various materials used for manufacturing purposes, such as raw cotton, wool, silk, indigo, cochineal, dye woods, whale oil, copper, zinc, and nitrate of soda. In colonials there has also been a very large increase in the imports of coffee and sugar, both of colonial and foreign growth. The principal decrease is shown in lead, nitrate of potash, and olive oil. The import of linen thread and linens has been about the same as last year. In regard to exports the returns afford evidence of an increased foreign trade, which is principally shown in the articles for which France has always found an extensive demand abroad, such as wines, brandy, soap, printed cottons, linens, hides, leather, books, engravings, porcelain, and glass. In the export of grain, woolen yarn, and haberdashery, there is, as compared with 1851, a slight falling off; as also in silks, plain calicoes, and silk manufactures; but the only important decrease is in the export of refined sugar, which has been very much below that of previous years.

THE MACKEREL FISHERIES.

The following is the estimate of the Inspector-General of Massachusetts, showing what interest Massachusetts has in the fishery question:—

Tons, 54,040, being 858 vessels, navigated by 9,174 men and boys.

Value of vessels and outfits	$3,532,000
Annual value of catch	2,400,000
The value for the rest of New England may be considered as nearly equal to this amount, say, value of vessels and outfits	2,500,000
Value of catch	1,600,000

Tons, 30,000—6,000 men and boys.

But only an approximation can be made, as many vessels are employed in both cod and mackerel.

The Massachusetts mackerelmen, in 1851, caught their fares as follows:—

In American waters ..... bbls.	188,336
In waters, the exclusive right to which is now claimed by Earl Derby	140,906

TABLE OF EXPORTS OF SOME OF THE LEADING ARTICLES FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE THREE YEARS ENDING JUNE, 1852.

Month.	Pot Ashes, bbls.			Pearl Ashes, bbls.			Cotton, bales.			Cotton Goods, packages.			Flour, bbls.		
	1849-50.	'50 51.	'51 52.	'49-50.	'50 1.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-52.	'49-50.	'50 51.	'51-52.	'49-50.	'50-51.	51-2.
July	1,577	3,140	1,627	188	463	174	12,123	20,292	12,856	3,904	540	269	113,498	47,921	231,084
August	2,356	4,776	3,469	182	676	237	9,947	55,077	20,775	439	946	1,907	74,417	148,462	192,180
September	2,856	2,312	1,156	466	880	70	20,765	37,624	10,619	2,897	3,486	1,448	74,575	215,084	93,895
October	1,879	2,791	2,266	289	640	44	11,592	22,755	9,268	417	500	1,731	45,286	141,687	73,290
November	1,569	2,208	2,097	192	369	241	34,868	20,027	12,493	1,235	2,896	1,762	69,145	155,268	100,601
December	3,699	2,952	1,131	764	105	40	21,456	15,162	22,064	1,035	232	453	80,160	96,555	80,040
January	1,522	2,588	815	525	784	67	12,680	22,051	31,612	645	1,716	322	56,302	49,855	89,386
February	1,559	1,340	1,509	266	348	57	23,271	21,769	27,056	2,613	864	8,270	33,007	28,002	61,263
March	1,466	891	569	176	162	91	22,091	37,204	60,944	3,448	9,013	6,429	27,181	27,649	62,612
April	1,595	833	826	285	54	..	18,988	40,478	60,075	3,623	7,305	513	23,331	44,805	76,750
May	2,656	2,881	2,371	269	206	117	30,031	43,219	62,223	12,088	7,803	6,916	29,276	97,286	142,606
June	3,829	2,186	2,994	297	76	100	43,029	25,061	18,679	1,198	4,662	6,041	55,406	97,466	149,583
Total	26,563	28,898	20,630	3,899	4,263	1,998	260,841	360,719	348,661	33,542	39,963	35,055	681,584	1,150,040	1,303,249

	Wheat, bushels.			n bushels.			Beef, packages.			Pork, bbls.			Lard, kegs.		
	'49 50.	'50 51.	'51-2	'49-50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	'50 51.	'51 2.	49 50.	'50-51.	'51-2.	'49-50.	50-51.	'51-2.
July	14,095	100	192,096	848,404	119,072	175,895	393	4,113	7,321	2,714	6,003	3,252	3,598	1,661	10,056
August	9,680	45,954	209,396	192,159	11,936	39,423	774	2,375	4,230	5,594	9,420	3,343	5,334	8,165	3,844
September	27,283	64,266	214,945	61,978	51,518	25,227	1,688	1,839	2,514	6,415	4,940	3,794	16,617	7,488	3,758
October	41,716	103,229	125,353	193,131	24,671	114,080	1,380	1,954	3,165	5,244	4,463	4,462	48,083	4,181	12,898
November	69,610	265,822	230,757	145,805	18,943	73,382	13,318	7,676	2,862	6,963	6,682	2,928	26,691	8,384	9,784
December	116,577	164,227	241,423	70,792	49,345	15,849	6,089	9,935	6,904	5,089	2 652	4,275	12,994	4,371	1,853
January	38,802	23,641	88,819	97,662	53,672	42,199	7,819	4,342	4,566	4,006	4,514	3,192	16,772	2,909	5,787
February	14,568	.....	103,554	522,423	42,809	50,823	5,152	2,933	2,297	5,868	1,855	2,510	23,839	2,935	4,336
March	2,010	40,693	120,608	463,141	25,065	78,819	3,996	3,687	5,960	8,682	4,087	3,341	23,432	5,073	6,643
April	3,138	20,081	136,142	360,034	67,310	107,255	3,716	6,235	3,341	6,774	6,843	3,313	28,065	11,898	4,672
May	.....	65,755	165,617	414,529	510,537	190,126	2,759	3,056	4,344	7,601	5,915	2,494	8,938	8,314	4,299
June	11,640	60,525	82,044	419,515	424,827	104,609	4,277	4,207	4,265	3,049	2,356	4,501	3,362	44,837	8,984
Total	349,119	854,253	1,910,754	3,789,573	1,399,205	1,017,687	50,316	52,015	50,559	67,499	59,730	41,405	212,725	105,216	76,868

FISHERIES OF THE BRITISH PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

From the official statistics of the Province of Nova Scotia (referred to in other departments of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine*) we derive the subjoined statistics of the Fisheries of that Province as taken in 1851:—

STATEMENT OF THE FISHERIES OF NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

Counties.	No. of vessels employed.	Tonnage.	No. of men.	No. of boats employed.	No. of men.	No. of nets and seines.	No. of Quantity of dry fish cured.	No. of bbls. of salmon.
Halifax	96	2,184	255	1,437	1,054	6,764	14,684	25
Lunenburg	186	2,478	659	458	640	5,610	21,057	7
Queens	27	1,178	228	119	229	612	8,998	..
Shelburne	109	27,229	694	419	679	1,342	35,417	50
Yarmouth	71	2,206	477	49	76	396	20,270	..
Digby	34	990	169	82	112	256	10,901	..
Annapolis	6	247	19	62	86	197	602	..
Kings	7	580	38	32	45	131	994	30
Hants	..	...	..	8	11	19	87	6
Cumberland	3	109	18	25	23	273	680	97
Colchester	2	25	6	28	50	96	229	15
Pictou	..	...	..	6	12	97	34	75
Sydney	6	90	26	180	153	1,056	1,033	184
Guysboro'	71	2,350	289	833	1,005	7,227	15,834	601
Inverness	74	1,007	264	247	379	955	11,901	193
Richmond	99	2,197	456	522	860	2,654	32,255	42
Cape Breton	21	463	83	654	1,298	2,469	21,458	344
Victoria	..	....	...	...	....	....	.....	...
Total	812	43,333	36,81	5,161	6,713	30,154	196,434	1,669

Counties.	No. of bbls. of shad.	No. of bbls. of mackerel.	No. of bbls. of herring.	No. of bbls. of alewives.	Quantity of smoked herring.	Value.	Quantity of fish oil.	Value.
Halifax	1	29,835	5,085	182	93	£53,573	17,895	£1,508
Lunenburg	..	9,417	4,878	202	..	15,113	8,401	875
Queens	..	1,441	4,880	...	30	.....	10,274	1,055
Shelburne	..	4,610	6,680	61	275	22.215	40,992	3,977
Yarmouth	..	1,129	1,398	611	100	15,000	7,988	851
Digby	48	1,385	5,213	10	4,830	7,615	1,356	327
Annapolis	20	108	529	16	7,362	1,555	752	132
Kings	856	2	849	164	2,115	1,200	242	27
Hants	546	...	340	...	107	....	....	...
Cumberland	563	36	678	162	150	1,810	932	96
Colchester	1,450	..	112	...	300	2,404	98	9
Pictou	....	..	50	12	...	....	13	2
Sydney	....	1,828	1,250	32	...	....	2,518	252
Guysboro'	4	20,054	8,460	815	...	28,208	21,378	1,641
Inverness	....	5,401	2,287	2,172	6	18,492	17,174	1,914
Richmond	25	15,373	4,398	851	...	50,085	22,947	1,782
Cape Breton	28	9,428	6,113	53	41	.....	36,290	3,304
Victoria	....	....	....	...	...	.....	.....	....
Total	3,536	100,047	53,200	5,343	15,409	217,270	189,250	17,754

IMPORTS OF BRANDIES INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

SHIPMENTS OF COGNAC BRANDIES FROM CHARENTE TO ALL THE PORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM THE 1ST OF JULY, 1851, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1852.

	Puncheons.	Hhds.	Qr. casks.	Cases.
Martell & Co	1,017	11,706	4,283	449
Jas. Hennessay & Co	1,334	8,169	5,008	2,366
George Salignac	561	3,405	3,774	2,338
Otard, Dupuy & Co	316	1,600	1,172	1,079
Sundry parties	698	7,287	9,147	31,766
	3,956	32,167	23,924	37,998

ROCHESTER FLOUR TRADE.

QUANTITY OF FLOUR SHIPPED FROM ROCHESTER IN EACH MONTH OF THE SEASON OF 1851, COMPARED WITH FOUR PREVIOUS YEARS, AS PUBLISHED IN THE ROCHESTER DEMOCRAT.

	1851.	1850.	1849.	1848.	1847.
April	52,152	38,039	.....	.....	.....
May	61,758	56,641	89,508	93,279	127,059
June	29,616	35,665	58,081	67,585	74,932
July	40,805	33,301	40,833	51,958	78,390
August	43,390	58,445	56,792	67,753	61,965
September	63,887	88,196	77,486	92,396	74,474
October	112,637	94,348	153,004	98,946	111,030
November	96,683	127,291	124,411	108,865	103,712
December	.....	8,447	1,044	651	.....
Total	500,330	552,729	570,757	584,426	631,574

QUANTITIES SHIPPED FOR SERIES OF YEARS.

1844.....bbls.	400,388	1848.....bbls.	584,426
1845.....	518,318	1849.....	570,757
1846.....	540,232	1850.....	552,729
1847.....	631,574	1851.....	500,330

The Rochester and Syracuse Railroad carried 20,513 barrels in 1851. This is a small comparative amount. In 1848 that road took 58,137 barrels, and in 1850 about 30,000 barrels. The amount of flour left here by canal during the year is 26,888 barrels. Last year there were 44,443 barrels left by canal. The Western Railroad during 1851 brought down 49,000 barrels, in 1850, a little more than that. Adding to the amount shipped by canal, the difference in the amount left here during the year, and the shipments are still less than any previous year named, excepting 1844–5.

To the amount shipped must be added the amount consumed by 40,000 inhabitants, and by a large number of people living in the suburbs and vicinity.

The amount of wheat left here by both canals for two years is as follows:—

	1850.		1851.	
	Genesee Valley.	Erie.	Genesee Valley.	Erie.
April	9,680	.....	26,638	16,448
May	47,876	28,420	86,974	53,387
June	36,349	13,485	45,347	36,081
July	33,263	47,824	81,491	37,770
August	58,576	122,277	59,187	22,294
September	50,187	124,018	159,472	18,751
October	83,328	149,162	395,990	61,754
November	104,915	226,465	178,892	62,287
December	29,499	50,735	79,856	40,830
Total	453,673	762,286	1,113,857	351,607

The following is the quantity left by both canals for a series of years:—

1844 .....bbls.	884,141	1848 .....bbls.	1,443,133
1845.....	1,169,281	1849.....	1,426,436
1846.....	1,503,546	1850.....	1,215,759
1847.....	1,778,116	1851.....	1,465,454

The Western Railroad has left 175,000 bushels, which is more by 50,000 than it brought here the year previous.

A rough estimate of the amount of flour manufactured here in the course of a year is 600,000 barrels, to manufacture which, computing five bushels of wheat to each barrel, would require three million bushels. The whole amount left here by canal and railroad is 1,640,454 bushels, leaving 1,359,546 to be made up from receipts by wagons from the country towns. The product of this county is computed at about that amount. A considerable portion of what is grown in this county is brought in by canal, while no small amount is brought from adjoining counties by land carriage. Some wheat is received by lake vessels, both from Canadian and American ports. The amount arriving last year is much smaller than usual, but we have not been able

to obtain the precise figures. Canadian produce dealers have found this an unprofitable market, as their wheat can scarcely compete with Genesee upon paying terms, and they do not often venture to send a cargo to our port.

BRITISH IMPORTS OF SUGAR FROM HER POSSESSIONS.

From a return, printed by order of the British House of Commons, we find that in 1851, 36,777,717 lbs. of sugar were imported from British Possessions, which, as compared with the previous year's imports, shows a decrease of 2,955,326 lbs. Of cocoa 4,349,051 lbs. were imported, being an increase over the previous year of 2,360,454 lbs. Cotton wool was imported to the extent of 123,075,603 lbs., exceeding the imports of 1850 by 3,974,948 lbs. The imports of foreign sugar from all parts amounted last year to 2,296,304 cwts., being more than the previous year by 945,781 cwts. Refined sugar, foreign, was imported to the amount of 53,084 cwts., and of British produce 153 cwts. The sugar imported from British possessions amounted to 5,698,082 cwts. The imports of rum from British possessions amounted to 4,652,232 gallons, being a small increase over the previous year.

COMMERCE OF HOLLAND IN 1852.

By a comparative statement of the imports, exports, and transit of merchandise in Holland during the first six months of 1852, published in the *Staats Courant*, it is shown that the quantity of raw cotton imported in that period is nearly double that imported in the same period of 1851. Cotton yarn also shows an increase of fully one-third; the value of iron imported has been increased by nearly 1,500,000 florins; the quantity of raw sugar, 15,000,000 lbs.; coffee, 10,000,000 lbs.: rice, 6,000,000 lbs.; leaf tobacco, 6,000,000 lbs.; and tin by 1,000,000 lbs. In the exports there has been an increase of 1,200,000 florins' value upon iron, 3,000,000 lbs. upon raw cotton, 8,000,000 lbs. upon coffee, 1,000,000 lbs. upon sundry manufactured goods, 6,500,000 lbs. upon rice, 600,000 lbs. upon sugar, 6,000,000 lbs. upon leaf tobacco, and 1,000,000 lbs. upon cotton yarns.

THE FOREIGN TRADE OF LONDON.

It appears from a return to Parliament, that in 1841 the number of British vessels which had entered the port of London, engaged in the foreign trade, was 4,016 sailing and 626 steamers, and in ten years—in 1851—the number was 5,190 sailing and 1,403 steamers; while of foreign vessels there were, in 1841, 1,927 sailing and 72 steamers, and last year the number had increased to 3,474 sailing and 274 steam vessels.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

BELVIDERE KNOLL AND HOOPER'S STRAITS.

The Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey has communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury the following information, which was published officially for the benefit of mariners:—

COAST-SURVEY STATION, near Petersburg, Va., August 7, 1852.

SIR:—I have the honor to communicate a notice to mariners in relation to buoys recently placed, by request of the collector of Baltimore, on the Belvidere Knoll, near the entrance to the Patapsco, and near a wreck in Hooper's Straits, and respectfully ask authority to publish it.

A buoy painted red, with a white band near the top of the spar, has been placed near the sunken wreck of a collier, in the entrance of Hooper's Straits, (Chesapeake Bay,) which is a dangerous impediment to vessels entering the straits from the northward. The buoy is placed in seventeen feet water, seven yards from the bows of the wreck, with the following bearings by compass:—

Light-ship in Hooper's Straits	E. by S.
Tom's point	N. ¼ W.

Vessels should pass to the westward of the buoy, and approach it no nearer than thirty yards.

A similar buoy has been placed on Belvidere Knoll, S. E. from the Bodkin, (Chesapeake Bay,) and east of the swash channel, into Patapsco River, (Baltimore entrance,) with the following bearings by compass:—

Bodkin's Light-house	N. W. ¼ N.
Sandy point	S. ¼ W.

Very respectfully, yours, &c., A. D. BACHE, Superintendent.

BEACON AT ENTRANCE OF BOMBAY HARBOR.

COMMODORE'S OFFICE, BOMBAY, May 19, 1852.

The beacon on the Island of Kennery, situate at the entrance of Bombay Harbor, the completion of which was made known by a notification published in the Bombay Government *Gazette*, and dated April 3d, 1851, having been partially destroyed by the heavy rains of the monsoon, was taken down.

A new beacon has since been commenced on, and is now sufficiently advanced towards completion to be visible to vessels approaching the harbor, and it is expected will be entirely finished by the 1st of June next.

The new beacon is of a cylindrical form, and rises to the hight of 70 feet above the foundation.

The beacon is painted black, and can be seen at a distance of 16 miles on a clear day.

The following are a few of the bearings from Kennery:—

Outer light	N. by W. ¼ W. 7¼ miles.
Light-house	N. 11¼ miles.
Inner light	N. ¼ E. 11 miles.
Northern light	N. E. by E. ¼ E. 8 miles.

BOQUERON CHANNEL, PORT OF CALLAO.

The following notice to mariners is extracted from a letter of Lloyds' agent at Callao, dated June 25th, 1852:—

"The channel (Boqueron) is not the usual one to enter the port, and lately a number of vessels have come on shore from attempting to come in that way, rather than the ordinary one round the north point of the island of San Lorenzo. The Peruvian vessels generally enter by the former channel, but most of them are small, and the masters are, by practice, well acquainted with it. The Peruvian government have prohibited vessels laden with guano from entering by the Boqueron Channel, and as it is not a safe one for persons unacquainted with it, we consider that the underwriters and masters of vessels should be aware of the risk and danger incurred."

BEARINGS OFF BULL'S BAY LIGHT-HOUSE.

Bring the light-house on the north-east of Bull's Island to bear N. W. ¼ W. by compass, and run for it until over the bar, then follow the beach round by the lead, until the point of the island gives you a harbor. This course will give you not less than nine feet on the bar at low tide, rise of tide about six feet.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON BULL'S ISLAND.

The light-house lately constructed on Bull's Island, about 30 miles north of Charleston, was lighted on the 1st of August. Bull's Bay affords a safe anchorage ground for vessels of light draft, which may be obliged to seek a safe harbor by stress of weather.

W. J. GRAYSON, Superintendent.

NOTICE TO UNITED STATES CONSULS.

Our consuls abroad will serve the interest of Commerce and Navigation by forwarding to the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine* any authentic information touching light-houses, port charges, &c., &c.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

SPANISH COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

We are enabled, through ALEXANDER BURTON, Esq., United States Consul at Cadiz, Spain, to lay before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the subjoined information in relation to the Spanish tariff of 1849, &c. :—

The Spanish Custom-House Tariff of 1849 has undergone modifications in the names of some articles of importation, principally of European manufacture, as also in regard to the duties payable thereon, of all which the Spanish Government has recently ordered the publication.

The decree of 17th December last, relative to port dues on vessels arriving in Spain, went into operation the 1st of February last.

The shipping of the United States continues subject to the payment of the following duties:—

Light-house, 2 reals; anchorage, 2 reals; loading, 5 reals; unloading, 5 reals; per ton of 2,000 pounds Spanish; and one-eighth is added to the English tonnage of 20 cwt., to reduce it to the Spanish ton of 20 quintals.

Anchorage and light money to be paid at the port first touched at; loading and unloading as often as either takes place.

Vessels coming strictly in ballast, and loading salt at Cadiz, are exempt from light duty, but subject to the payment of all the other dues.

A consumption duty is levied on the provisions brought into port by vessels and used on board by their crews and passengers. This duty may be assessed on difference between the quantity of provisions manifested at time of entry and what may exist at the time of clearing, duty being charged on the excess; but in order to avoid such a vexatious inspection, it is permitted, by agreement with the Administration of Contributions, to compound at four marvedis per day for each person on board.

The sanitary regulations in regard to quarantine remain without alteration since December 31st, 1850.

The pilotage from and to sea, and also the health office, charges for visitor and tender on vessels and cargo; and searchers' fees are regulated by a tariff of fifty years' standing.

A royal order of the 25th of April, explanatory of that of 17th of December last, says, that the charges for anchorage, loading and unloading, are to be exacted from vessels in all ports of the Peninsula; and by ports is to be understood those points of the coast where artificial works may have been constructed, to afford shelter and secure means of loading, without more exception than roadsteads and open bays (radas y calas abiestas). Under this order of the 25th of April, the chief of the custom-house at Algeciras has given notice to the foreign vice-consular agents there resident, that the anchorage duty will be exacted from all foreign vessels entering that bay for shelter or other cause (arribada forzosa); and claims the delivery of manifests and crew lists. The object is probably to oblige all wind-bound vessels so anchoring, and without performing any mercantile operation, to enter and clear at the custom-house, thus causing delay and increase of expenses, ruinous to voyages of vessels with cargoes of fruit and other perishable articles.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION, BETWEEN THE U. S. & GUATEMALA.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Whereas a General Convention of Peace, Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between the United States of America and the Republic of Guatemala, was concluded and signed in the city of Guatemala, by the respective Plenipotentiaries, on the third day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine; which Convention, being in the English and Spanish languages, is, word for word, as follows:

General Convention of peace, amity, Commerce and navigation, between the United States of America and the republic of Guatemala.

The United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, desiring to make firm and permanent the peace and friendship which happily prevails between both

sens aforesaid to sail with the ships and merchandise aforementioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security, from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy before mentioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of one power or under several. And it is hereby stipulated, that free ships shall also give freedom to goods, and that everything shall be deemed to be free and exempt which shall be found on board the ships belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties, although the whole lading or any part thereof should appertain to the enemies of either—contraband goods being always excepted. It is also agreed, in like manner, that the same liberty be extended to persons who are on board a free ship, with this effect: that although they be enemies of both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ship unless they are officers or soldiers, and in the actual service of the enemies; provided, however, and it is hereby agreed, that the stipulations in this article contained, declaring that the flag shall cover the property, shall be understood as applying to those powers only who recognize this principle; but if either of the two contracting parties shall be at war with a third and the other neutral, the flag of the neutral shall cover the property of enemies whose governments acknowledge this principle, and not of others.

ART. XV. It is likewise agreed that in the case where the neutral flag of one of the contracting parties shall protect the property of the enemies of the other, by virtue of the above stipulation, it shall always be understood that the neutral property found on board such enemy's vessels shall be held and considered as enemy's property, and as such shall be liable to detention and confiscation, except such property as was put on board such vessel before the declaration of war, or even afterwards, if it were done without the knowledge of it; but the contracting parties agree that, two months having elapsed after the declaration, their citizens shall not plead ignorance thereof. On the contrary, if the flag of the neutral does not protect the enemy's property, in that case the goods and merchandises of the neutral embarked in such enemy's ship shall be free.

ART. XVI. This liberty of navigation and Commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandises, excepting those only which are distinguished by the name of contraband; and under this name of contraband or prohibited goods shall be comprehended:—

1st. Cannons, mortars, howitzers, swivels, blunderbusses, muskets, fusees, rifles, carbines, pistols, pikes, swords, sabers, lances, spears, halberds, and granades, bombs, powder, matches, balls, and all other things belonging to the use of these arms.

2d. Bucklers, helmets, breastplates, coats of mail, infantry belts, and clothes made up in the form and for a military use.

3d. Cavalry belts, and horses, with their furniture.

4th. And generally all kinds of arms and instruments of iron, steel, brass, and copper, or of any other materials, manufactured, prepared, and formed expressly to make war by sea or land.

ART. XVII. All other merchandise and things not comprehended in the articles of contraband explicitly enumerated and classified, as above, shall be held and considered as free, and subjects of free and lawful Commerce, so that they may be carried and transported in the freest manner by both the contracting parties, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting only those places which are at that time besieged or blockaded; and to avoid all doubt in this particular, it is declared that those places only are besieged or blockaded which are actually attacked by a belligerent force capable of preventing the entry of the neutral.

ART. XVIII. The articles of contraband before enumerated and classified, which may be found in a vessel bound for an enemy's port, shall be subject to detention and confiscation, leaving free the rest of the cargo and the ship, that the owners may dispose of them as they see proper. No vessel of either of the two nations shall be detained on the high seas on account of having on board articles of contraband, whenever the master, captain, or supercargo of said vessels will deliver up the articles of contraband to the captor, unless the quantity of such articles be so great and of so large a bulk that they cannot be received on board the capturing ship without great inconvenience; but in this and in all other cases of just detention the vessel detained shall be sent to the nearest convenient and safe port for trial and judgment according to law.

ART. XIX. And whereas it frequently happens that vessels sail for a port or place belonging to an enemy without knowing that the same is besieged, blockaded, or in-

vested, it is agreed that every vessel so circumstanced may be turned away from such port or place, but shall not be detained; nor shall any part of her cargo, if not contraband, be confiscated, unless, after warning of such blockade or investment from the commanding officer of the blockading forces, she shall again attempt to enter; but she shall be permitted to go to any other port or place she shall think proper. Nor shall any vessel of either of the parties, that may have entered into such port or place before the same was actually besieged, blockaded, or invested by the other, be restrained from quitting such place with her cargo: nor, if found therein after the reduction and surrender, shall such vessel or her cargo be liable to confiscation, but they shall be restored to the owners thereof.

ART. XX. In order to prevent all kind of disorder in the visiting and examination of the ships and cargoes of both the contracting parties on the high seas, they have agreed, mutually, that whenever a vessel of war, public or private, shall meet with a neutral of the other contracting party, the first shall remain out of cannot shot, and may send its boat, with two or three men only, in order to execute the said examination of the papers concerning the ownership and cargo of the vessel, without causing the least extortion, violence, or ill treatment, for which the commanders of the said armed ships shall be responsible, with their persons and property; for which purpose, the commanders of the said private armed vessels shall, before receiving their commissions, give sufficient security to answer for all the damages they may commit. And it is expressly agreed, that the neutral party shall in no case be required to go on board the examining vessel for the purpose of exhibiting her papers, or for any other purpose whatever.

ART. XXI. To avoid all kind of vexation and abuse in the examination of the papers relating to the ownership of the vessels belonging to the citizens of the two contracting parties, they have agreed, and do agree, that in case one of them should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels belonging to the citizens of the other must be furnished with sea-letters or passports expressing the name, property, and bulk of the ship, as also the name and place of habitation of the master or commander of the said vessel, in order that it may thereby appear that the ship really and truly belongs to the citizens of one of the parties. They have likewise agreed, that such ships, being laden, besides the said sea-letters or passports, shall also be provided with certificates containing the several particulars of the cargo and the place whence the ship sailed, so that it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods be on board the same; which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship sailed in the accustomed form; without which requisites said vessel may be detained to be adjudged by the competent tribunal, and may be declared legal prize, unless the said defect shall be satisfied or supplied by testimony entirely equivalent.

ART. XXII. It is further agreed, that the stipulations above expressed relative to the visiting and examination of vessels shall apply only to those which sail without convoy; and when said vessels shall be under convoy, the verbal declaration of the commander of the convoy, on his word of honor, that the vessels under his protection belong to the nation whose flag he carries, and, when they are bound to an enemy's port, that they have no contraband goods on board, shall be sufficient.

ART. XXIII. It is further agreed, that in all cases the established courts for prize causes in the country to which the prizes may be conducted shall alone take cognizance of them. And whenever such tribunal of either party shall pronounce judgment against any vessel, or goods, or property claimed by the citizens of the other party, the sentence or decree shall mention the reasons or motives on which the same shall have been founded; and an authenticated copy of the sentence or decree, and of all the proceedings in the case, shall, if demanded, be delivered to the commander or agent of said vessel without any delay, he paying the legal fees for the same.

ART. XXIV. Whenever one of the contracting parties shall be engaged in war with another State, no citizen of the other contracting party shall accept a commission or letter of marque for the purpose of assisting or co-operating hostilely with the said enemy against the said party so at war, under the pain of being treated as a pirate.

ART. XXV. If by any fatality (which cannot be expected, and which God forbid) the two contracting parties should be engaged in a war with each other, they have agreed, and do agree, now for then, that there shall be allowed the term of six months to the merchants residing on the coasts and in the ports of each other, and the term of one year to those who dwell in the interior, to arrange their business and transport their effects wherever they please, giving to them the safe conduct necessary for it,

which may serve as a sufficient protection until they arrive at the designated port. The citizens of all other occupations who may be established in the territories or dominions of the United States of America and the Republic of Guatemala shall be respected and maintained in the full enjoyment of their personal liberty and property, unless their particular conduct shall cause them to forfeit this protection, which, in consideration of humanity, the contracting parties engage to give them.

ART. XXVI. Neither the debts due from individuals of the one nation to individuals of the other, nor shares nor moneys which they may have in public funds or in public or private banks, shall ever, in any event of war or of national difference, be sequestered or confiscated.

ART. XXVII. Both the contracting parties, being desirous of avoiding all inequality in relation to their public communications and official intercourse, have agreed, and do agree, to grant to the envoys, ministers, and other public agents, the same favors, immunities, and exemptions which those of the most favored nation do or shall enjoy; it being understood that whatever favors, immunities, or privileges the United States of America or the republic of Guatemala may find it proper to give the ministers and public agents of any other power, shall, by the same act, be extended to those of each of the contracting parties.

ART. XXVIII. To make more effectual the protection which the United States of America and the republic of Guatemala shall afford in future to the navigation and commerce of the citizens of each other, they agree to receive and admit consuls and vice-consuls in all the ports open to foreign commerce, who shall enjoy in them all the rights, prerogatives, and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the most favored nation; each contracting party, however, remaining at liberty to except those ports and places in which the admission and residence of such consuls and vice-consuls may not seem convenient.

ART. XXIX. In order that the consuls and vice-consuls of the two contracting parties may enjoy the rights, prerogatives, and immunities which belong to them by their public character, they shall, before entering on the exercise of their functions, exhibit their commission or patent in due form to the government to which they are accredited; and, having obtained their *exequatur*, they shall be held and considered as such by all the authorities, magistrates, and inhabitants in the consular district in which they reside.

ART. XXX. It is likewise agreed, that the consuls, their secretaries, officers, and persons attached to the service of consuls, they not being citizens of the country in which the consul resides, shall be exempt from all public service, and also from all kinds of taxes, imposts, and contributions, except those which they shall be obliged to pay on account of Commerce or their property, to which the citizens and inhabitants, native and foreign, of the country in which they reside, are subject; being in everything besides subject to the laws of the respective States. The archives and papers of the consulate shall be respected inviolably, and under no pretext whatever shall any magistrate seize or in any way interfere with them.

ART. XXXI. The said consuls shall have power to require the assistance of the authorities of the country for the arrest, detention, and custody of deserters from the public and private vessels of their country, and for that purpose they shall address themselves to the courts, judges, and officers competent, and shall demand the said deserters in writing, proving, by an exhibition of the registers of the vessel's or ship's roll, or other public documents, that those men were part of the said crews; and on this demand, so proved, (saving, however, where the contrary is proved,) the delivery shall not be refused. Such deserters, when arrested, shall be put at the disposal of the said consuls, and may be put in the public prisons, at the request and expense of those who reclaim them, to be sent to the ships to which they belonged, or to others of the same nation. But if they be not sent back within two months, to be counted from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall be no more arrested for the same cause.

ART. XXXII. For the purpose of more effectually protecting their Commerce and navigation, the two contracting parties do hereby agree, as soon hereafter as circumstances will permit, to form a consular convention, which shall declare specially the powers and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the respective parties.

ART. XXXIII. The United States of America and the republic of Guatemala, desiring to make as durable as circumstances will permit, the relations which are to be established between the two parties by virtue of this treaty, or by general convention of peace, amity, Commerce, and navigation, have declared solemnly, and do agree to, the following points:—

1st. The present treaty shall remain in full force and virtue for the term of twelve years, to be counted from the day of the exchange of the ratifications, and further until the end of one year after either of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of said term of twelve years. And it is hereby agreed between them, that on the expiration of one year after such notice shall have been received by either from the other party, this treaty, in all its parts relative to Commerce and navigation, shall altogether cease and determine, and in all those parts which relate to peace and friendship it shall be perpetually binding on both powers.

2d. If any one or more of the citizens of either party shall infringe any of the articles of this treaty, such citizens shall be held personally responsible for the same, and the harmony and good correspondence between the nations shall not be interrupted thereby; each party engaging in no way to protect the offender or sanction such violation.

3d. If, (which indeed cannot be expected,) unfortunately, any of the articles contained in the present treaty shall be violated or infringed in any other way whatever, it is expressly stipulated that neither of the contracting parties will order or authorise any acts of reprisal, nor declare war against the other, on complaints of injuries or damages, until the said party considering itself offended shall first have presented to the other a statement of such injuries or damages, verified by competent proof, and demanded justice and satisfaction, and the same shall have been either refused or unreasonably delayed.

4th. Nothing in this treaty contained shall, however, be construed or operate contrary to former and existing pulic treaties with other sovereigns or States.

The present treaty of peace, amity, Commerce, and navigation, shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by the government of the republic of Guatemala, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the city of Washington or Guatemala within *eighteen* months, counted from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America and of the republic of Guatemala, have signed and sealed these presents, in the city of Guatemala, this third day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-nine.

[L. S.] ELIJAH HISE,
[L. S.] J. MARIANO RODRIGUEZ.

And whereas the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications of the same have been exchanged—

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, MILLARD FILLMORE, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this twenty-eighth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, and of the independence of the United States of America the seventy-seventh.

[L. S.] MILLARD FILLMORE.

By the President:

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

OF ALLOWANCE FOR TARE ON MERCHANDISE.

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 23, 1852.

The Supreme Court of the United States, in a recent decision made in the case of Cornelius W. Lawrence, plaintiff in error, *vs.* John Caswell and Solomon Caswell, having laid down a principle adverse to the construction and practice heretofore prevailing upon the subject of allowances for tare, draft, leakage, breakage, &c., on imported merchandise, it becomes the duty of the department to instruct the collectors and the officers of the customs, that hereafter in the assessment of duties on imported

merchandise, none of the allowances specified in the fifty-eighth and fifty-ninth sections of the General Collection Act of 2d March, 1799, are to be made, the court having intimated such allowances to be inapplicable to any article of merchandise subject under the existing Tariff Act to the payment of *ad valorem* duty.

No more than the actual weight of the cask or package can therefore in any case be allowed; and if the collector has any doubt as to the correctness of such weight or tare, in any invoice offered for entry, it will be his duty to ascertain the correctness of it by emptying such number of packages as he may think advisable, in order to ascertain the actual weight or tare of the cask or package, but in no instance is any allowance to be made on a claim for alleged erroneous tare, or for other causes, actual damage only excepted, where the full gross or net weight landed is equal to the invoice weight. So likewise in case there should have been any shrinkage or drying in an article during the voyage of importation, no allowance can be made for such shrinkage and drying where the full quantity shipped of such article has been landed, though in all cases actual drainage, leakage, or damage, will be allowed as heretofore.

The Supreme Court in the above decision says, "when the Act of 1846 changed the duty on brandy from a specific one on the gallon to an *ad valorem* one, it was no longer within the provisions of the Act of 1799, and consequently no longer entitled to the deduction of the 2 per cent. Under this decision, the deduction of the said 2 per cent will in no case be allowed on liquids subject to guage.

As regards the return of duties illegally exacted, the court says: "In order that the opinion of the court may not be misunderstood, that when we speak of duties illegally exacted, the court mean to confine the opinion to cases like the present, in which the duty demanded was paid under protest, stating specially the ground of objection. Where no such protest is made, the duties are not illegally exacted in the legal sense of the term: for the law has confided to the Secretary of the Treasury the power of deciding in the first instance upon the amount of duties due on the importation. And if the party acquiesces, and does not by his protest appeal to the judicial tribunals, the duty paid is not illegally exacted, but is paid in obedience to the decision of the tribunal to which the law has confided the power of deciding the question.

"Money is often paid under the decision of an inferior court, without appeal, under the construction of a law which is afterwards in some other case, in a higher and superior court, determined to have an erroneous construction. But money thus paid is not illegally exacted. Nor are duties illegally exacted where they are paid under the decision of the Collector, sanctioned by the Secretary of the Treasury, and without appealing from that decision to the judicial tribunals by a proper and legal protest."

Under this opinion of the court, no duties will hereafter be returned except in such cases where a protest, in writing, may have been or shall be made at the time, stating specially the ground of objection, nor will the allowances specified in sections fifty-eight and fifty-nine of the Act of 2d March, 1799, be allowed in any claim for return duties on importations heretofore made.

Any previous circular instructions or regulations conflicting with the preceding are hereby repealed. WM. L. HODGE, Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

TARIFF OF THE PERUVIAN GOVERNMENT.

Information has been communicated to the Department of State, by EDWARD MCCALL, Esq., Consul of the United States at Lima, that the new tariff, or rates of duties, lately approved and published by order of the Peruvian Government, goes into effect on all goods or merchandise imported from the United States on the 20th of September next. This tariff very materially modifies the rate of duties at present collected on foreign merchandise, and particularly on the staple articles of domestic cottons imported from the United States. These cottons are now subject to a duty of 40 per cent, but after the 20th of September they will pay only 15 per cent; flour will pay 30 per cent—about one-third of the duty now exacted. Chairs, wood and cane seats, 25 per cent; furniture, all classes, 30; silks and linens, all classes, 28; woolens, all classes, 25.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

POPULATION AND REPRESENTATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We understand, says the *National Intelligencer*, that on the 2d of August, 1852, the Secretary of the Interior, in compliance with the provisions of the act of Congress, approved 23d May, 1850, providing for the taking of the seventh and subsequent censuses, transmitted to the House of Representatives his official certificate of the number of representatives apportioned to each State under the last or Seventh Enumeration of the Inhabitants of the United States, and that certificates are being prepared to be sent to the Executive of each State of the number to which such State is entitled. These certificates are in accordance with and founded upon the following table, showing the federal and representative population of the United States on the 1st day of June, 1850:—

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, SEVENTH CENSUS, 1850, WITH THE APPORTIONMENT OF REPRESENTATION AND THE FRACTIONS FOR EACH STATE.

States.	Whites.	Free colored.	Total.	Slaves.	Federal representative population.	Representations of each State. No.	Fractions.
Maine	581,813	1,356	583,169	.....	583,169	6	22,649
New Hampshire	317,456	520	317,976	.....	317,976	3	37,716
Vermont	313,402	718	314,120	.....	314,120	3	33,860
Massachusetts	985,704	8,795	994,499	.....	994,499	11	*60,299
Rhode Island	143,875	3,669	147,544	.....	147,544	2	*54,124
Connecticut	363,305	7,486	370,791	.....	370,791	4	*90,531
New York	3,049,457	47,937	3,097,394	.....	3,097,394	33	14,534
Pennsylvania	2,258,463	53,323	2,211,786	.....	2,311,786	25	*69,706
Ohio	1,956,108	24,300	1,980,408	.....	1,980,408	21	18,588
Indiana	977,628	10,788	988,416	.....	988,416	11	*54,216
Illinois	846,104	5,366	851,470	.....	851,470	9	10,690
Michigan	395,097	2,557	397,654	.....	397,654	4	23,974
Wisconsin	304,565	626	305,191	.....	305,191	3	24,931
Iowa	191,879	335	192,214	.....	192,214	2	5,374
California	91,632	965	92,597	.....	92,597	†2	.....
New Jersey	465,528	23,807	489,330	225	489,465	5	22,365
Delaware	71,169	18,073	89,242	2,290	90,616	1	.....
Maryland	417,943	74,723	492,666	90,368	546,886	6	*79,786
Virginia	895,304	53,829	949,133	472,528	1,232,649	13	18,189
North Carolina	553,118	27,373	580,491	288,412	753,538	8	6,178
South Carolina	274,623	8,900	283,523	384,984	514,513	6	*47,413
Georgia	521,436	2,380	524,818	381,681	753,326	8	6,966
Alabama	426,486	2,293	428,779	342,892	634,514	7	*73,994
Mississippi	295,758	898	296,657	309,898	482,595	5	15,495
Louisiana	255 416	17,537	272,953	244,786	419,824	4	46,144
Tennessee	756,893	6,271	763,164	239,461	906,840	10	*66,060
Kentucky	761,688	9,736	771,424	210,981	898,012	10	*57,232
Missouri	592,077	2,544	594,621	87,422	647,074	7	*86,554
Arkansas	162,068	589	162,657	46,982	190,846	2	4,006
Florida	47,167	925	48,092	39,309	71,677	1	.....
Texas	154,100	331	154,431	58,161	189,327	2	2,487
Dist. of Columbia	38,027	9,973	48,000	3,677	.....	..	.....
Minnesota	6,038	39	6,077	.....	.....	..	.....
New Mexico	61,530	17	61,547	.....	.....	..	.....
Oregon	13,087	206	13,293	.....	.....	..	.....
Utah	11,330	24	11,354	26	.....	..	.....

* All the States marked thus (*) have an additional member for the fraction.
† One representative added for California under the act of Congress, approved 30th July, 1852.

TOTAL POPULATION IN THE THIRTY-ONE STATES.

Whites	19,427,259	
Free colored	419,451	
		19,846,710
Slaves		3,200,380
Federal representative population		21,766,931
Federal representative ratio		93,420

TOTAL POPULATION, INCLUDING THE TERRITORIES.

Whites	19,557,271
Free colored	429,710
Slaves	3,204,093
Total	23,191,074

COMPLETE CENSUS OF THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA IN 1851.

We are indebted to D. McGULLOCH, Esq., Secretary to the Board of Statistics (Financial Secretary's office) for complete "statistics of each county of the British Province of Nova Scotia, exhibiting a view of the population, pursuits, industry, and resources of the country, within each county of the Province, as taken in 1851." Under the present head we give all that relates to population, according to the classification of the official document from which the subjoined statements are copied:—

NUMBER OF PERSONS IN THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA ENGAGED IN LEARNED PROFESSIONS, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, NAVIGATION, AND LUMBERING.

COUNTIES.	No. of clergymen	No. of lawyers	No. of doctors	No. of merchants and traders	No. of persons employed in manufactures	No. of mechanics	No. of farmers	No. of persons engaged in the fisheries	No. of registered seamen	No. of persons employed at sea	No. of persons engaged in lumbering
Halifax	44	57	31	760	258	2,023	2,099	1,823	86	271	92
Lunenburg	11	5	9	324	300	380	3,018	1,155	24	178	192
Queens	15	4	6	85	293	257	400	316	..	135	289
Shelburne	13	2	5	43	105	337	317	1,806	282	263	54
Yarmouth	16	3	8	135	125	449	1,151	406	210	553	17
Digby	14	2	7	89	134	279	1,331	202	48	350	21
Annapolis	21	10	11	93	178	476	1,993	48	23	266	7
Kings	21	7	10	81	107	486	2,500	22	46	113	4
Hants	17	5	6	74	225	404	1,822	3	105	267	10
Cumberland	16	11	15	80	482	624	1,932	11	99	138	220
Colchester	17	5	8	64	367	502	2,333	42	74	189	223
Pictou	21	9	11	159	280	1,089	3,463	5	204	55	13
Sydney	12	7	2	62	73	301	2,113	197	52	83	..
Guysboro'	16	4	3	107	57	242	1,248	1,222	81	125	38
Inverness	12	2	2	73	87	373	2,118	473	41	108	7
Richmond	4	3	4	67	40	171	490	1,022	3	594	1
Cape Breton	18	7	7	119	94	502	3,276	1,124	35	273	66
Victoria	..	..	..	....	..	....	....	....	..	....	..
Total	288	143	145	2,415	3,200	8,895	31,604	9,927	1,413	3,961	1,254

CENSUS OF THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA, EXHIBITING THE AGGREGATE NUMBERS, AGES, AND SEXES OF EACH DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS.

Counties.	No. of persons under 10 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons from 10 to 20 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons from 20 to 30 years of age. Males.	Females.
Halifax	5,408	6,291	4,228	4,659	2,543	3,553
Lunenburg	2,576	2,618	1,877	1,860	1,387	1,293
Queens	1,107	1,081	975	841	555	550

Counties.	No. of persons under 10 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons from 10 to 20 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons from 20 to 30 years of age. Males.	Females.
Shelburne	1,490	1,412	1,909	1,502	714	788
Yarmouth	2,227	2,088	1,713	1,645	917	987
Digby	2,099	1,912	1,468	1,454	863	941
Annapolis	2,214	2,133	1,733	1,653	987	1,181
Kings	2,245	2,122	1,720	1,679	1,082	1,086
Hants	2,345	2,261	1,719	1,629	1,044	1,168
Cumberland	2,442	2,370	1,665	1,680	1,099	1,079
Colchester	2,520	2,412	1,912	1,866	1,116	1,142
Pictou	4,158	4,038	3,036	3,105	1,772	2,196
Sydney	2,095	2,129	1,749	1,788	973	1,161
Guysboro'	1,817	1,737	1,405	1,374	834	873
Inverness	2,814	2,727	2,906	2,014	1,451	1,397
Richmond	1,750	1,650	1,197	1,275	839	872
Cape Breton	4,613	4,476	3,389	3,420	2,101	2,118
Victoria	...	....	....	....	.....	....
Total	44,000	43,452	33,791	33,444	20,277	22,385

Counties.	No. of persons from 30 to 40 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons from 40 to 50 years of age. Males.	Females.	No. of persons above 50 years of age. Males.	Females.
Halifax	2,485	2,616	1,761	1,608	1,906	1,974
Lunenburg	685	813	718	848	640	850
Queens	378	593	275	288	392	426
Shelburne	496	518	374	370	507	542
Yarmouth	652	647	479	456	669	667
Digby	637	635	505	454	635	649
Annapolis	751	793	580	633	827	801
Kings	777	737	527	539	824	800
Hants	754	728	585	588	825	734
Cumberland	888	772	496	582	755	611
Colchester	818	838	585	546	916	798
Pictou	1,240	1,359	1,062	922	1,379	1,326
Sydney	596	605	428	468	713	762
Guysboro'	519	496	351	339	601	492
Inverness	820	831	532	507	824	904
Richmond	539	521	387	371	498	482
Cape Breton	1,380	1,333	971	907	1,467	1,405
Victoria	....	....	...	...	....	....
Total	14,615	14,665	10,616	10,271	14,378	14,223

Counties.	No. of married persons of both sexes.	No. of widow's.	No. of widows.	No. of rate payers.	No. of paupers.	Deaf and dumb. M.	F.	Blind. M.	F.
Halifax	11,393	380	1,129	4,187	339	23	10	13	13
Lunenburg	4,595	85	277	2,469	24	3	1	..	..
Queens	2,253	61	144	1,260	29	..	3	..	..
Shelburne	2,868	77	234	1,710	15	2	3	1	3
Yarmouth	4,088	85	240	2,197	25	3	6	2	3
Digby	3,659	95	213	1,854	65	5	5	3	1
Annapolis	4,378	122	306	1,961	56	3	2	5	3
Kings	4,286	128	317	2,194	63	7	3	2	3
Hants	4,184	126	274	2,304	49	3	2	1	1
Cumberland	4,066	97	193	2,048	20	6	5	5	..
Colchester	4,701	135	238	2,899	17	7	3	3	2
Pictou	7,103	215	589	3,062	117	16	7	5	7
Sydney	3,242	99	329	1,788	15	10	4	7	5
Guysboro'	3,030	80	198	1,670	32	7	3	7	7
Inverness	4,295	129	387	2,298	55	10	17	7	4
Richmond	2,998	88	247	1,319	31	5	2	2	2
Cape Breton	7,568	236	654	3,668	60	17	12	11	8
Victoria	....	...	...	...	..	..	..	..	..
Total	78,701	2,238	5,916	38,388	1,072	132	98	74	62

Counties.	Lunatics. M.	Lunatics. F.	Idiots. M.	Idiots. F.	Indians. M.	Indians. F.	Colored persons. Males.	Colored persons. Females.	Total pop'n.
Halifax	30	35	10	6	78	91	733	955	39,112
Lunenburg	4	6	4	2	11	10	7	4	16,395
Queens	..	1	4	2	25	27	107	106	7,256
Shelburne	2	..	4	5	16	9	209	231	10,622
Yarmouth	1	3	8	6	11	2	126	121	13,142
Digby	..	5	12	11	74	80	226	228	12,252
Annapolis	6	3	6	5	54	64	253	230	14,286
Kings	3	6	12	3	4	2	95	90	14,138
Hants	2	3	7	13	31	33	75	95	14,330
Cumberland	..	2	4	3	1	..	61	75	14,339
Colchester	3	6	9	5	10	5	10	10	15,469
Pictou	8	5	25	9	47	55	13	7	25,593
Sydney	4	3	17	8	62	52	73	89	13,467
Guysboro'	2	2	6	6	37	25	294	309	10,838
Inverness	4	5	15	12	2	7	1	2	16,917
Richmond	2	1	11	5	11	8	20	21	10,331
Cape Breton / Victoria	5	4	22	22	50	62	18	14	27,580
	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.....
Total	76	90	176	123	524	532	2,321	2,587	276,117

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE COLLINS AND CUNARD STEAMERS.

We are indebted to J. H. C. Campbell, Esq., of Boston, for the subjoined statistics of the Collins and Cunard steamers. Mr. Campbell's well-known accuracy as a statistician is a sufficient guaranty for the fidelity of the compilation. The statements for previous periods, published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for September, 1851, and March, 1852, were compiled by Mr. Campbell:—

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM NEW YORK—COLLINS LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M.
January 10	Pacific	49	$625,510	11	2	30
" 24	Atlantic	27	245,000	10	23	..
February 7	Arctic	61	1,040,680	9	18	30
" 21	Pacific	63	550,000	10	20	30
March 6	Baltic	31	73,500	12	21	..
" 20	Arctic	60	.....	11	6	..
April 3	Pacific	104	2,000	11	18	15
" 17	Atlantic	124	.....	12	3	..
May 1	Arctic	138	65,000	10	15	30
" 15	Baltic	172	75,000	10	20	..
" 29	Atlantic	165	520,000	10	5	..
June 12	Arctic	160	450,000	10	13	20
" 26	Baltic	167	480,000	10	19	5

FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK—COLLINS LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M
January 7	Arctic	45	Luce	13	20	..
" 28	Pacific	44	Nye	15	4	30
Febru'ry 11	Atlantic	36	West	14	21	30
" 25	Arctic	20	Luce	11	17	30
March 10	Pacific	40	Nye	11	..	..
" 24	Baltic	34	Comstock	11	21	15
April 7	Arctic	47	Luce	10	18	..
" 21	Pacific	33	Nye	11	4	..
May 5	Atlantic	69	West	11	9	30
" 19	Arctic	99	Luce	10	19	30
June 2	Baltic	77	Comstock	10	23	30
" 16	Atlantic	77	West	10	3	..
" 30	Arctic	120	Luce	11	2	..

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM NEW YORK—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M.
January 14.....	Africa.....	50	$600,253	10	22	30
" 28.....	Asia.....	40	500,000	10	10	..
Febru'ry 11.....	Niagara.....	40	958,860	12	1	..
" 25.....	Canada.....	32	688,000	11	22	..
March 10.....	Africa.....	50	78,000	12	11	..
" 24.....	Asia.....	72	84,000	12	21	30
April 7.....	Europa.....	60	4,500	11	11	..
" 21.....	Africa.....	107	.....	10	19	..
May 5.....	Asia.....	113	130,000	10	5	..
" 19.....	Europa.....	123	575,000	10	6	..
June 2.....	Africa.....	100	408,150	10	11	..
" 16.....	Asia.....	157	923,000	10	16	..
" 30.....	Europa.....	112	404,000	11	1	30

FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M
January 3.....	Asia.....	49	Judkins.....	13	9	45
" 17.....	Niagara.....	47	Stone.....	20	19	..
" 31.....	Canada.....	41	Lang.....	17	21	..
Febru'ry 14.....	Africa.....	52	Ryrie.....	14	..	..
" 28.....	Asia.....	90	Judkins.....	12	20	..
March 13.....	Europa.....	59	Lott.....	12	..	..
" 27.....	Africa.....	36	Harrison.....	11	6	30
April 10.....	Asia.....	76	Judkins.....	10	23	..
" 24.....	Europa.....	52	Lott.....	12	5	30
May 8.....	Africa.....	52	Harrison.....	11	19	30
" 22.....	Asia.....	55	Judkins.....	10	19	..
June 5.....	Europa.....	51	Lott.....	11	4	..
" 19.....	Africa.....	80	Harrison.....	11	12	30

FOR LIVERPOOL FROM BOSTON—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Specie.	D.	H.	M
January 7.....	Canada.....	33	$25,000	10	21	..
" 21.....	Cambria.....	17	65,000	11	10	..
February 4.....	America.....	28	152,716	11	4	30
" 18.....	Europa.....	16	207,463	11	2	..
March 3.....	Cambria.....	10	21,000	12	23	..
" 17.....	America.....	13	.....	12	8	..
" 31.....	Niagara.....	29	12,000	13	9	15
April 14.....	Canada.....	21	.....	13	..	45
" 28.....	America.....	44	.....	10	15	..
May 12.....	Niagara.....	60	12,250	12	8	45
" 26.....	Canada.....	63	241,400	10	11	45
June 9.....	Cambria.....	57	157,000	10	23	..
" 23.....	America.....	62	289,000	11	6	30

FROM LIVERPOOL TO BOSTON—CUNARD LINE.

Date.	Steamship.	No. pass.	Commander.	D.	H.	M.
January 10.....	America.....	18	Shannon.....	16	3	..
" 24.....	Europa.....	36	Lott.....	15	7	..
February 7.....	Cambria.....	29	Leitch.....	15	19	30
" 21.....	America.....	23	Shannon.....	13	..	40
March 6.....	Niagara.....	46	Stone.....	12	8	..
" 20.....	Canada.....	63	Lang.....	11	3	..
April 3.....	America.....	47	Shannon.....	13	3	45
" 17.....	Niagara.....	46	Stone.....	12	12	..
May 1.....	Canada.....	51	Lang.....	12	17	..
" 15.....	Cambria.....	52	Douglas.....	12	17	..
" 29.....	America.....	51	Shannon.....	11	16	30
June 12.....	Niagara.....	50	Stone.....	11	16	..
" 26.....	Canada.....	78	Lang.....	11	2	10

THIRTEEN TRIPS COLLINS LINE TO LIVERPOOL.

	Days.	Hours.	Min.
Total time occupied	143	17	50
Average time per trip	11	1	..
Quickest trip since January, by Arctic, February 7	9	13	30
Longest " " by Baltic, March 6	12	21	..
Average number of passengers			102

THIRTEEN TRIPS CUNARD LINE TO LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied	145	13	30
Average time per trip	11	5	..
Quickest trip since January, by Asia, May 5	10	5	..
Longest " " " March 24	12	21	30
Average number of passengers			81

THIRTEEN TRIPS CUNARD LINE BOSTON TO LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied	151	23	30
Average time per trip	11	16	..
Quickest trip since January, by Canada, May 26	10	11	45
Longest " " by Niagara, March 31	13	9	15
Average number of passengers			35

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE COLLINS LINE FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied	154	20	15
Average time per trip	11	22	..
Quickest trip since January, by Atlantic, June 16	10	3	..
Longest " " by Pacific, January 28	15	4	30
Average number of passengers			61

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE CUNARD LINE FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied	170	15	45
Average time per trip	13	3	3
Quickest trip since January, by Asia, May 22	10	19	..
Longest " " by Niagara, January 17	20	19	..
Average number of passengers			57

THIRTEEN TRIPS OF THE CUNARD LINE TO BOSTON FROM LIVERPOOL.

Total time occupied	169	5	35
Average time per trip	13	..	..
Quickest trip since January, by Canada, June 26	11	2	10
Longest " " by America, January 10	16	3	..
Average number of passengers			45

COLLINS LINE.

Total amount of specie shipped since January	$4,126,690
" number of passengers sailed since January	1,321
" " " arrived since January	791
Largest " " in, per Arctic, June 30	120
" " " out, per Baltic, May 15	172
" amount of specie shipped, per Arctic, February 7	$1,040,680

CUNARD LINE—NEW YORK.

Total amount of specie shipped since January	$5,348,778
" number of passengers sailed since January	1,056
" " " arrived since January	740
Largest " " in, per Asia, February 28	90
" " " out, per Asia, June 16	157
" amount of specie shipped, per Niagara, February 11	$958,860

CUNARD LINE—BOSTON.

Total amount of specie shipped since January	$1,182,829
" number of passengers sailed since January	453
" " " arrived since January	590
Largest " " in, per Canada, June 23	78
" " " out, per Canada, May 26	63
" amount of specie shipped, per America, June 23	$289,000

Specie shipped per Collins and Cunard steamers from New York, January to July 1st, 1852	$9,475,463
Specie shipped per Cunard line from Boston, January to July 1st, 1852.	1,182,829
Total Collins and Cunard since July, 1851	32,159,613

COLLINS LINE.

Quickest trip ever performed—	Days.	Hours.	Min.
Outwards, Arctic, Captain Luce, February 7, 1852	9	13	30
Inwards, Baltic, Captain Comstock, August 6, 1851	9	13	40

CUNARD LINE—NEW YORK.

Outwards, Asia, Captain Judkins, May 7, 1851	10	2	..
Inwards, Africa, Captain Ryrie, August 2, 1851	10	6	..

CUNARD LINE—BOSTON.

Outwards, Asia, Captain Judkins, December 10, 1851	9	20	45
Inwards, Canada, Captain Lang, June 28, 1851	10	1	30

The Niagara, which sailed from Liverpool January 17th, put into Halifax in distress, having been at sea nearly seventeen days, and encountering severe weather. The Atlantic sailed from Liverpool February 11th, and when within six hundred miles of New York broke a part of her machinery connecting with the larboard crank, which detained her two days. The America from Liverpool, February 21st, was seized in Boston, March 8, by United States officers, on a charge of smuggling. Several merchants of high standing immediately gave the required bonds, and she sailed on her regular day. Very little specie has been brought by either line. The Canada, March 20, America, April 3d, and Pacific, April 21st, each delivered small shipments. It will be seen that the Collins line yet takes the lead, both as regards passengers and speed. Captain Luce, of the Arctic, has the honor of having accomplished the passage from New York to Liverpool in nine days eighteen hours and thirty minutes.

This, with the famous trip of Captain Comstock in the Baltic, places the Collins line in a proud position. The steamship Arabia, now finishing for the Cunarders, is expected to prove a formidable rival for Collins, but it must not be supposed that improvements cannot be made upon the models of the American ships. J. H. C. C.

STATISTICS OF THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

Incorporated in 1833; opened throughout October, 1834; length, 156 miles; length of double track, 54 miles; cost, January 1, 1852, $9,953,700.

The following table exhibits the operations of the road, during the last ten years; its cost, and the market price of the stock, at the beginning of each year. The item of "interest" is not included in the receipts or expenses:—

Year.	Cost.	Val. p'r shr.	Gross rec'pts.	Run'g expenses.	Net income.	Div. p.c.
1842	.... ..	$80	$512,689	$266,619	$246,070	.
1843	$7,037,200	45	573,882	303,973	269,909	.
1844	7,501,200	53	753,753	314,074	439,679	3
1845	7,686,200	91	813,480	370,621	442,859	5
1846	7,741,700	96	*878,418	*412,679	*465,739	6
1847	8,185,800	99	1,325,827	676,689	648,647	8
1848	8,769,500	105	1,332,068	652,357	679,711	8
1849	9,900,100	102	1,343,810	588,322	755,488	8
1850	9,926,900	101	1,369,514	607,549	761,965	8
1851	9,953,700	104	1,353,895	597,756	757,139	8
Total			10,256,845	4,790,639	5,466,206	A. 5 2-5

THE COAL TRAFFIC OF RAILWAYS.

As we mentioned a few weeks back, the Great Western Railway Company will shortly, by means of the South Wales Line, commence to bring coals to London. In the neighborhood of the South Wales Line there are coals in great quantities and of

* For eleven months.

various qualities—some of the best. The Great Western will, we believe, transport coal to London at a rate of charge which the Marquis of Salisbury and Mr. Grahame say is not only unremunerative, but productive of actual loss. It would seem that the Great Western are about to commit the same gross blunder that the Great Northern now persist in—namely, to carry coals long distances for (about) one half-penny per ton per mile! The observations of the Canal Directors, (the Marquis and Mr. Grahame,) instead of deterring railway directors from carrying the coal traffic, seem to spur them on in the enterprise. The fact is, the more the subject is investigated, the more apparent it is that under good management, and in consideration of large quantities and long distances, coals can be profitably carried for the charge of about one half-penny per ton per mile.

The Oxford, Worcester and Wolverhampton Railway Company has also its eye upon a large coal traffic.

In short, there is scarcely a line in the kingdom which will not in time carry coals.

How far will this circumstance affect the Great Northern's coal traffic? The answer is to be found in the fact that London alone consumes, in the course of a year, three-and-a-half millions of tons of coal. The utmost the Great Northern, in their sanguineness, expect to carry, is about three-fourths of a million tons a year, and only a portion of this to London. Therefore, there is plenty of scope for all the London railways to carry coals without injury to one another.

That against which railways will compete, is water-carriage—the canals and the sea.

We think that it is highly probable the coal traffic will pass from water conveyance to railway, as passengers have from coaches.

If railways can carry coals as cheaply as canals, they will certainly do it better; for on railways there are no periodical stoppages by reason of bad weather; no frightful loss of life or property (except that which occurs now and then from gross mismanagement—which is within the control of man, and in the course of time will be entirely prevented); and the coals are delivered in better condition.

The railways will, there can be no doubt, confer an immense benefit on the public by the carriage of coals. Not only will the public have them in better condition for use, but there will be no room for jobbing. The traders will not be enabled to run up prices enormously in severe weather. The supply will be more regular.

The articles which some time ago appeared in the Journal on this subject, have called forth the valuable communication of Mr. E. Hasket Derby, of Boston, America, which now appears in another column. Mr. Derby is a first-rate authority on the traffic of American railways. As an American railway director, his position alone is sufficient to command a certain degree of respect; but having devoted his time and talents to the study of the American railway system, he is entitled to the utmost deference on the subject.

He shows that in America, where the railways labor under some disadvantages in the carriage of heavy traffic—fuel, for one thing, being dearer—water-carriage could not stand against the competition of railway; that the railway could carry coals at a cheap rate with profit. The coal traffic of the American railway in question is carried at about five-eighths of a penny per ton per mile. This is as low, or somewhat lower than the English Great Northern's charge. The American charge of five-eighths of a penny per ton per mile is for a run of ninety-five miles. The Great Northern's charge of one half-penny per ton per mile is for a run of one hundred and seventy-six miles; but for their shorter distances the Great Northern charge more than one half-penny per ton per mile—about one penny, or double. The average receipt of the Great Northern from coals is, we believe, more than the American charge of five-eighths of a penny per ton-mile, while their average run would be full as long. Yet the American railway company, and notwithstanding their additional expenses of working, extract a profit from their coal traffic of just about 50 per cent, the expenses including the cost of back carriage. This fact powerfully supports the position which it will be remembered we, in our articles on the coal traffic referred to, took up—namely, that the Great Northern carry their coals at a profit of about 50 per cent.

The American line carries very little else than coal. Its passengers are not many, and the tons of coal are to the tons of merchandise carried as 1,650,270 tons to 63,807 tons. Of its whole revenue of $2,314,330 per annum as much as $2,018,870 is derived from the coal traffic.—*Herapath's Journal.*

BREAKING OF RAILWAY CAR AXLES.

A writer in the New York *Journal of Commerce* attributes the breaking of the axles of railroad cars to torsion, or twisting, occasioned in turning curves. He says that both wheels are keyed, or otherwise fastened, on the axle; so that they must have a common velocity. In turning curves, the wheel on the outer rail must have a motion as much greater than the other as is due to the greater circle which it traverses. The only way, therefore in which the equal speed of the two wheels can be attained, is by the sliding of that on the inner rail, so as to compensate for its diminished velocity. The sliding of the wheel operates to twist the axle, and it generally parts at its connection with the wheels. This seems to be owing to the whole leverage of the wheel, acting from its flange to the center, bearing on this point. The only effectual remedy for this evil, is some method of securing an independent motion to opposite wheels; at the same time taking the strain off the axle. This fact may afford a hint to the inventive genius of some of our mechanics.

In answer to this, a civil engineer in the *Public Ledger* of Philadelphia, says:—"The writer is probably not aware that all railway wheels are *conical*, or in other words, they have a larger diameter near their flanges, than at the outside of their treads; and that, as the centrifugal force of the trains drives their flanges towards the exterior rail, their bearing diameter on that rail increases, and on the interior rail it decreases, so as to compensate for the difference in the length of the rails, and avoid the sliding alluded to. Engineers, knowing the radius of their curvatures, regulate the cone and play of their wheels to suit; and are well pleased with the practical working of the simple mathematical rules which they apply. The frequent reference I see made this subject, by those who are evidently not familiar with railway mechanism, must be the excuse for this explanation, by a civil engineer.

RAILROADS IN SPAIN.

The Spanish provincial correspondence and newspapers are full of accounts of railroads and projects of railroads, by means of which every province looks forward to have its resources developed and its riches increased. Cadiz hopes to see her fallen trade revive; Barcelona to drive even the English smuggling trade in cottons out of the market. The semi-official organ of the ministry avails itself of the enthusiasm awakened on the subject by representing the present ministry as the government, whose special mission it is to endow the country with these means of communication, which are expected to change the face of Spain, and put her on a level with the other nations of Europe.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The usual return relating to railway acccidents for the half-year, ending 31st of December, 1851, has been printed. The number of passengers was 47,509,392. The number of persons killed was 113, and 264 injured. There were eight passengers killed and 213 injured, from causes beyond their own control; 9 passengers were killed and 14 injured owing to their own misconduct or want of caution; 30 servants of companies or of contractors were killed and 17 injured from causes beyond their own control; 32 servants of companies or of contractors were killed and 11 injured owing to their misconduct or want of caution; 33 trespassers and other persons, neither passengers nor servants of the companies were killed and 9 injured by crossing or walking on railways. There was one suicide. The length of railways open on the 30th of June, 1851, was 6,698 miles, and on the 1st of December last, 6,890 miles; being an increase during the half-year of 192 miles.

THE LONGEST TUNNEL IN THE WORLD.

One of the longest, if not *the* longest tunnel in the world is now in a forward state of completion. It is situated in Hungary, and leads from the shores of the River Gran, not far from Zarnowitz, to the mines in the Schemnitzer Hills. It is two geographical or about ten English miles long. It is intended to answer the double purpose of a channel to drain off the water accumulating in the works, and a railway to transport the ore from the mines to the river.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

GOLD MINING IN CALIFORNIA.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Conductor Merchants' Magazine, New York:*—

SIR:—Gold is obtained in California from two sources—the *placer* diggings and the quartz rock. A large portion of that which has been exported from that State has been obtained from the *placer* diggings. This method has been prosecuted to such an extent and with so much industry and care, that the best *placers* have been explored, and digging in the sand and banks of the streams has become much less profitable than at first. The consequence is that the attention of the gold seekers is more strongly attracted to the rock mining, which has been prosecuted to some extent, but in a far more limited degree than the diggings in *placers*.

In quartz mining, the gold is found penetrating the rock like veins, and to obtain it the rock must be crushed to a powder which is washed and the gold finally separated from the dust by mixing it with quicksilver.

There are two important points in this process. The first is, to crush the rock, and the second to obtain all the gold by the use of the quicksilver.

The first machinery for crushing quartz rock was put up in June and commenced work in July, 1851, on the big Mariposa vein. This was a Chilian mill and was put up by Messrs. Cook & Jackson; it crushed about five hundred pounds in twelve hours. The amalgam was examined once in three or four days and the yield found to be $250. to $375. The Chilian mills have proved to turn out more gold to a pound of the same ore, but they have failed, entirely because they crush such a small amount in a day. In this respect they are only one step in advance of common hand mortars. This same company in August went another step in advance by puting up "Stockton Stamps," and set them in motion in September. These stamps weighed 209 pounds and were worked by a steam-engine. But they were too light. They would crush only two and-a-half tons in twenty-four hours. These light stamps were sent out to California under the impression that the rock would yield $2 00 or $3 00 in gold to the pound.

Stockton & Aspinwall's mill went into operation on the same vein in November, 1850. It contained twelve stamps weighing each 159 pounds. Their mine was poor and the only part of their claims which worked to a profit was 120 feet on the Mariposa vein, and the rock from this they were obliged to transport to the mill at an expense of one cent per pound, and the amount crushed was only 8,500 pounds in twelve hours. Of course this would not pay. It was the assertion of the agent of this company that if the machinery had been heavier they would have succeeded. And this is probable, for the miners are now in the habit of bringing the rock to the mills and paying from $20 00 to $30 00 per ton for crushing it; which is an evidence that it is profitable.

All these first mills used the bowls with a single shaking table for separating the gold from the pulverized dust, by which about 15-16 of it ran off and only 1-16 passed through the shaking table.

These mills were originally designed for the gold mines of Virginia and Georgia, where they may have been very successful; but they were, unfortunately, found entirely unsuitable, under the circumstances, for California. They were generally driven by an engine of eight or ten horse power and, therefore, were competent to crush four or five tons of rock in a day. Such a mill, at Virginia prices for labor, could be worked at an expense of fifty dollars per day. If we suppose the yield to be one cent per pound, for five tons, it would amount to two hundred dollars per day, or one hundred and fifty dollars net profit in Virginia,

In California, on the other hand, the wages of the same number of laborers, or force, which was employed in Virginia, would amount to $274 per day, which would not pay expenses by $174. At two cents of gold to the pound of rock, the yield is only $400, which is a very insignificant return for California.

By contrasting this method of labor with that adopted by the successful mills, the importance of suitable machinery will be readily apprehended.

The Grass Valley Quartz Mining Company's Mill has been regarded as the "Model

Mill," in California, as, in its success, it has been one of the most prosperous. This mill has thus far crushed the rock upon the old fashioned method long in use among miners, and known as "stampers." Their form is somewhat modified and much larger on the face than usual. There are ten of them in the mill weighing each about 700 pounds, and they crush from thirty to forty tons of ore per day. This at a yield of two cents to the pound is $1,600 per day, and supposing only two hundred working days in a year, amounts to $320,000. But this mill has actually yielded on some days $3,800. Its average, however, is $70 to the ton or 3½ cents to the pound. The quartz, even under the imperfect method of separating the gold with quicksilver, has yielded at this mill an average of three-and-a-half cents to the pound of rock. This mill paid its original cost in sixty days after it was constructed: subsequently it has paid large profits, notwithstanding it has been three times remodeled, improved and enlarged. In the months of April and May alone the net profits of this mill exceeded $17,800, and the last arrival brings a statement of equal richness in the yield. The highest estimate of expenses for running a mill of this kind is in round numbers about $400 per day.

There is one point in connection with quartz mining in California which has defeated many enterprising persons and caused the loss of capital also. It is that lack of experience which is necessary to command success in all mining operations. Many have attempted it who possess little or no real knowledge of mining; many also have embarked in it without the necessary capital and have not been able to sustain themselves until abundant proceeds could be realized from the mine. All have been in error in relation to the suitable machinery.

The method of separating the gold from the pulverized quartz has been very imperfect, and in some cases not more than one-half or one-third of it is obtained, as was proved by assaying it afterwards. Of course, this has been an unexpected difficulty to many. But it has now been to a considerable extent obviated by improved amalgamators, and will doubtless be still further remedied hereafter.

The extent of the quartz veins is estimated by Prof. Blake to be comprised "within a belt of land ten miles broad and running the whole length of the country north and south, and doubtless furnishing a supply of gold which it will take centuries to exhaust." He also says "there can be no doubt but that quartz mining is destined to be the most permanent source of gold in this country. It will not be many years before it will attract that attention which, as an investment for capital, it evidently deserves.

J. T.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

We commence in the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine* the publication of a series of papers on the manufacture of glass. These cannot fail to be acceptable to our readers, as they will contain much valuable information relating to the discovery of the materials and their various improvements, which, under the influence of heat, are fused into a substance long known as the beautiful, pellucid glass, so indispensable in domestic, chemical, building, and various other uses. The process through which its manufacture has reached its present state of perfection, with statistical and other valuable knowledge of the art of glass making will be embodied in these articles. To say they are from the pen of Deming Jarvis, Esq., the well known founder and principal of the Boston and Sandwich Glass Manufactory, in Sandwich, Mass., is sufficient assurance to all who know this gentleman that they will be reliable and interesting.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.—NO. I.

It may be safely asserted, that no department of art has from its earliest period attracted so much attention and investigation, none involved so extensive a range of inquiry, or been productive of more ingenious, interesting, and beautiful results, than the manufacture of glass.

The question of the origin of glass goes back to the remotest antiquity, and is involved in almost entire obscurity. All that modern writers on the subject are enabled to do, is to glean hints and indistinct statements in reference to the subject from the very brief and unsatisfactory accounts of the ancients. These, however, throw but a feeble light upon the precise point of the origin of the manufacture; and little is proved beyond the fact of its great antiquity.

That the subject held a very prominent place in the technological literature of the ancients, is clearly proved—Pliny, Theophrastus, Strabo, Petronius, Arbiter, Berzelius, Neri, Merrit, Runket, and others, referring constantly to it. The writings of all these demonstrate the deep interest existing upon the subject at their various times; but still fail to present us with any connected or detailed account of the rise and progress of the art.

When it is considered that the elements involved in the manufacture of glass are derived from the earth,—not one of its components being in itself transparent, but earthy, opaque, and apparently incapable of being transmuted into a transparent and brilliant substance,—when it is considered that from these a material is produced almost rivaling the diamond in luster and refractive power, and sometimes so closely resembling the richest gems as to detract from the value of the costliest,—can it be wonderful that in the earliest ages the art was invested with a mysterious interest attaching to no other mechanical department?

From the earliest periods, up to the eighteenth century, the art, from the peculiar knowledge and skill involved, could only minister to the wants or pleasures of the luxurious rich. The rarity of the material rendered the articles greatly valuable, as tasteful ornaments of dress or furniture;—indeed, it is well known that the glass of Venice, at one period, was as highly valued as is plate of the present day; and the passion for possessing specimens, promised in England at least, to excite a spirit of speculation fully rivaling that exhibited in the tulip mania, so ridiculous, as well as ruinous, in Holland.

It has been reserved for the present age, however, to render the art of glass making tributary to the comfort of man—to the improvement of science—and by its moderate cost, to enable the poorest and humblest to introduce the light and warmth of the sun within, while excluding the storms and chilly blasts; to decorate his table with the useful, and minister to his taste, at a cost barely more than that of one of his ordinary days' labor. That which once was prized and displayed as the treasure and inheritance of the wealthy, and which with sacred carefulness was handed down as of precious value, may now be found in the humblest dwellings, and is procured at a charge which makes the account of the former costliness of glass to partake almost of the character of the fabulous and visionary.

That the art of glass manufacture is destined to greater progress and higher triumphs, cannot for a moment be doubted; and the time will arrive when, from increased purity of materials and progressive chemical development, the present position of the art will fall comparatively into the shade. It is no undue stretch of the imagination to conceive that lenses shall be perfected, whose purity will enable the astronomer to penetrate the remotest region of space; new worlds may perhaps be revealed, realizing all that the "moon hoax" promised—

> "The spacious firmament on high,
> With all the blue, ethereal sky
> And spangled heavens ——— ——"

be read as a book, and man perhaps recognize man in other worlds than his own. It may be that in its triumphs it is destined to concentrate the rays of the sunlight, and make the eye to pierce into the secrets and deep places of the sea,

> "Full many a fathom deep."

Man may be enabled to read the wonders and the hidden works of the Almighty;—it may be, that the power of the traditional lens of Archimedes upon the fleet of Marcellus shall be realized, in the absorbing and igniting, and perhaps useful power of some feature of its progress; and in its sphere, the art become fruitful in practical results, rivaling the highest attainments in the department of scientific progress. It is a visionary speculation to believe, that by the aid of machinery it may be readily rolled into sheets, as is iron or lead now in use. It will minister more and more to the necessities and comfort of mankind, and contribute largely to the many and various manufacturing purposes of the age. That its practical adaptations are not already known or exhausted, cannot be doubted; and its applicability in some cheaper form for vessels of large size and certain shape, and (strange as it may seem) for tesselated and ordinary flooring and pavements, are among the results which we think yet to be demonstrated in its progress.

An elegant writer in a late number of *Harper's Magazine* says:—

"The importance of glass, and the infinite variety of objects to which it is applicable, cannot be exaggerated; indeed, it would be extremely difficult to ennumerate its

properties, or estimate adequately its value. This, then, transparent substance, so light and fragile, is one of the most essential ministers of science and philosophy, and enters so minutely into the concerns of life, that it has become indispensible to the daily routine of our business, our wants, and our pleasures. It admits the sun and excludes the wind, answering the double purpose of transmitting light and preserving warmth; it carries the eye of the astronomer to the remotest region of space;—through the lenses of the microscope it develops new worlds of vitality, which without its help must have been but imperfectly known; it renews the sight of the old, and assists the curiosity of the young; it empowers the mariner to descry distant ships, and trace far off shores—the watchman on the cliff to detect the operations of hostile fleets and midnight contrabandists, and the lounger in the opera to make the tour of the circles from his stall; it preserves the light of the beacon from the rush of the tempest, and softens the flame of the lamp upon our tables; it supplies the revel with those charming vessels in whose bright depths we enjoy the color as well as flavor of our wine; it protects the dial whose movements it reveals; it enables the student to penetrate the wonders of nature, and the beauty to survey the marvels of her person; it reflects, magnifies, and diminishes—as a medium of light and observation its uses are without limit, and as an article of mere embellishment, there is no form into which it may not be molded, or no object of luxury to which it may not be adapted."

In contrast with the foregoing, we will make one more extract from an English writer of ancient date. Holinshed, in his "Chronicles," published during the reign of Elizabeth, says:—

"It is a world to see in these our days, wherein gold and silver aboundeth, that our gentility, as loathing these metals, (because of the plenty,) do now generally choose rather the Venice Glasses, both for our wine and beer, than any of these metals, or stone, wherein before time we have been accustomed to drink; but such is the nature of man generally, that it most coveteth things difficult to be attained—and such is the estimation of this stuff, that many become rich only with therein new trade into Murana, (a town near to Venice,) from whence the very best are daily to be had, and such as for beauty do well near match the Crystal or the ancient Murrhina Vase, whereof now no man has knowledge. And as this is seen in the gentility, so in the wealthy commonality the like desire of glasses is not neglected, whereby the gain gotten by their purchase is much more increased, to the benefit of the merchant. The poorest endeavor to have glasses also if they may; but as the Venetian is somewhat too dear for them, they content themselves with such as are made at home of fern and burnt stone; but in fine, all go one way, that is to the shades, at last."

PROPERTIES OF GLASS.

Glass has properties peculiarly its own—one of which is that it is of no greater bulk when hot, or in the melted state, than when cold. Some writers state that it is (contrary to the analogy of all other metals) of greater bulk when cold than when hot.

It is transparent in itself—but the materials of which it is composed are opaque. It is not malleable—but in ductility ranks next to gold. Its flexibility, also, is so great that when hot it can be drawn out like elastic thread miles in length in a moment, and to a minuteness equal to that of the silk worm. Brittle, also, to a proverb, it is so elastic that it can be blown to a gauze-like thinness, so as easily to float upon the air. Its elasticity is also shown by the fact that a globe, hermetically sealed, if dropped upon a polished anvil, will recoil two-thirds the distance of its fall, and remain entire until the second or third rebound. (The force with which solid balls strike each other may be estimated at ten, and the reaction by reason of the elastic property at nine.) Vessels, called bursting-glasses, are made of sufficient strength to be drawn about a floor; a bullet may be dropped into one without fracture of the glass;—even the stroke of a mallet sufficiently heavy to drive a nail, has failed to break such glasses. In a word, ordinary blows fail to produce an impression upon articles of this kind. If, however, a piece of flint, cornelian, diamond, or other hard stone, fall into one of these glasses, or be shaken therein a few moments, the vessel will fly into a myriad of pieces.

Glass of the class called Prince Rupert drops, exhibits another striking property. Let the small point be broken, and the whole flies with a shock into powder. Writers have endeavored to solve the philosophy of this phenomenon—some by attributing it to percussion putting in motion some subtile fluid with which the essential substance of glass is permeated, and thus the attraction of cohesion being overcome. Some de-

nominate the fluid electricity, and assert that it exists in glass in great quantities, and is capable of breaking glass when well annealed. These writers do not appear to have formed any conclusion satisfactory to themselves, and fail to afford any well-defined solution to the mystery.

Another phenomenon in connection with glass tubes is recorded in the "Philo. Transaction," No. 476:—

"Place a tube, say two feet long, before a fire in a horizontal position, having the position properly supported, say by putting in a cork at each end supported by pins for an axis,—the rod will acquire a rotary motion round the axis, and also a progressive motion towards the fire even if the supporters are declined from the fire. When the progressive motion of the tube towards the fire is stopped by any obstacle, the rotation is still continued. When the tubes are placed in nearly an upright position, leaning to the right hand, the motion will be from east to west; but if they lean to the left hand, their motion will be from west to east; and the nearer they are placed to an upright position the less will be their motion either way. If the tubes be placed on a sheet of glass, instead of moving towards the fire they will move from it—and about the axis in a contrary direction from what they did before—nay, they will recede from the fire, and move a little upwards when the plane inclines towards the fire."

Glass is used for pendulums, as not being subject to affections from heat or cold. It is, as is well known, a non-conductor. No metallic condenser possesses an equal power with one of glass. In summer, when moisture fails to collect on a metallic surface, open glass will gather it on the exterior—the slightest breath of air evidently affecting the glass with moisture. Dew will affect the surface of glass while apparently uninfluential upon other surfaces.

The properties of so called "musical glasses" are strikingly singular. Glass bowls, partly filled with water, in various quantity, will, as is well known, emit musical sounds, varying with the thickness of their edges or lips. When rubbed, too, with a wet finger gently, the water in the glass is plainly seen to tremble and vibrate.

Bells manufactured of glass have been found the clearest and most sonorous—the vibration of sound extending to a greater degree than in metallic bells.

Glass resists the action of all acids, except the "fluoric." It loses nothing in weight by use or age. It is more capable than all other substances of receiving the highest degree of polish. If melted seven times over and properly cooled in the furnace, it will receive a polish rivaling almost the diamond in brilliancy. It is capable of receiving the richest colors procured from gold or other metallic coloring, and will retain its original brilliancy of hue for ages. Medals, too, imbedded in glass, can be made to retain forever their original purity and appearance.

Another singular property of glass is shown in the fact that when the furnace, as the workmen term it, is settled, the metal is perfectly plain and clear—but if by accident the metal becomes too cool to work, and the furnace heat is required to be raised, the glass which had before remained in the pots perfectly calm and plain, immediately becomes agitated and apparently boiling. The glass rises in a mass of spongy matter and bubbles, and is rendered worthless. A change is however immediately effected by throwing a tumbler of water upon the metal, when the agitation immediately ceases, and the glass resumes its original quiet and clearness.

All writers upon the subject of glass manufacture fail to show anything decisive upon the precise period of its invention. Some suppose it to have been invented before the flood. Nervi traces its antiquity to the yet problematical time of Job.

It seems clear, however, that the art was known to the Egyptians thirty-five hundred years since; for records handed down to us in the form of paintings, hieroglyphics, &c., demonstrate its existence in the reign of the first Osirtasen, and existing relics in glass taken from the ruins of Thebes, with hieroglyphical data, clearly place its antiquity at a point fifteen centuries prior to the time of Christ.

Mr. Kennet Loftus, "the first European who has visited the ancient ruins of Warka—in Mesopotamia—writes thus: Warka is no doubt the Erech of Scripture, the second city of Nimrod, and it is the Orchoe of the Chaldees, the mounds within the walls affords subjects of high interest to the historian, they are filled, or I may say composed of coffins piled upon each other to the hight of forty-five feet.

"The coffins are of baked clay, covered with green glaze, and embossed with figures of warriors, &c., and within are ornaments of gold, silver, iron, copper and *glass*."

Other writers believe that glass was in more general use in the ancient, than in comparatively modern times, and affirm that among the Egyptians it was used even

as material for coffins. It is certainly true that so well did the Egyptians understand the art, that they excelled in the imitation of precious stones, and were well acquainted with the metallic oxides used in coloring glass; and the specimens of their skill, still preserved in the British Museum, and in private collections, prove the great skill and ingenuity of their workmen in mosaic similar in appearance to the modern paper weights. Among the specimens of Egyptian glass still existing, is a fragment representing a lion in bas relief, well executed and anatomically correct. Other specimens are found inscribed with Arabic characters.

All writers agree that the glass houses in Alexandria, in Egypt, were highly celebrated for the ingenuity and skill of their workmen, and the extent of their manufactures.

Strabo relates that the Emperor Hadrian received from an Egyptian priest a number of glass cups in mosaic, sparkling with every color, and deemed of such rare value that they were used only on grand festivals.

The Tombs at Thebes, the ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum, and the remains of the villa of the Emperor Tiberius, go not only incidentally to establish the antiquity of the art, but also to prove the exquisite taste and skill of the artists of their various periods.

The first glass houses, well authenticated, were erected in the city of Tyre. Modern writers upon the subject generally refer to Pliny in establishing the fact that the Phenicians were the inventors of the art of glass making. The tradition is that the art was originally brought to light under the following circumstances:—A vessel being driven by a storm to take shelter at the mouth of the river Belus, the crew were obliged to remain there some length of time. In the process of cooking a fire was made upon the ground, whereon was abundance of the herb 'kale.' That plant burning to ashes, the saline properties became incorporated with the sand. This causing vitrification, the compound now called glass was the result. The fact becoming known, the inhabitants of Tyre and Sidon essayed the work and brought the new invention into practical use. This is the tradition—but modern science demonstrates the false philosophy, if not the incorrectness, of Pliny's account; and modern manufacturers will readily detect the error, from the impossibility of melting silex and so by the heat necessary for the ordinary boiling purposes.

It is a well authenticated fact, however, that there were whole streets in Tyre entirely occupied by glass works; and history makes no mention of any works of this character at an earlier period than the time mentioned by Pliny.

That Tyre possessed peculiar advantages for the manufacture, is very clear from geographical and geological data, the sand upon the shore at the mouth of the river Belus being pure silica and well adapted to the manufacture. The extensive range of Tyrian Commerce, too, gave ample facilities for the exportation and sale of the staple; and for some ages it must have constituted almost the only article, or at least the prominent article of trade. Doubtless the rich freights of "the ships of Tyre," mentioned in Scripture, may in part have been composed of a material now as common and easily procured as any of its original elements.

From Tyre and Sidon the art was transferred to Rome. Pliny states it flourished most extensively during the reign of Tiberius, entire streets of the city being then occupied by the glass manufactories. From the period of Tiberius the progress of the art seems more definite and marked, both as relates to the quantity and mode of manufacture.

It was during the reign of Nero, so far as we can discover, that the first perfectly clear glass, resembling crystal, was manufactured. Pliny states that Nero, for two cups of ordinary size with two handles, gave six thousand sestertia, equal in our currency to about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and that rich articles of glass were in such general use among the wealthy Romans as almost to supersede articles of gold and silver. The art, however, at that period, seems to have been entirely devoted to articles of luxury, and from the great price paid, supported many establishments, all however evidently upon a comparatively small scale, and confined, as it would appear, to families.

Up to this period no evidence appears to prove that any other than colored articles in glass were made. It is clear, too, that the furnaces and melting pots then in use, were of very limited capacity, the latter being of crucible shape; and it was not until the time of Nero that the discovery was made that muffled crucibles or pots, as used at the present day, were required in order to make crystal glass. (Without them, it is well known, crystal glass cannot be perfected.) It appears, further, that a definite

street in the city of Rome was assigned to the manufacturers of this article, and that at the reign of Severus, they had attained such a position and accumulated wealth to such a degree, that a formal tax was levied upon them. Some writers take the ground that this assessment was the primary cause of the transfer of the manufacture to other places.

That the peculiar property of the manufacture at this period was its clear and crystal appearance, is abundantly evident; and this, and the great degree of perfection to which the manufacture of white or crystal-like glass was carried, are by many writers thought to have been proved from classical sources—Horace and Virgil both referring to it, the one speaking of its beautiful luster and brilliancy, the other comparing it to the clearness of the waters of the Fucine Lake. D. J.

STATISTICS OF NOVA SCOTIA MANUFACTURES.

From an important document, recently published, we gather the subjoined statistics of the manufacturing industry of Nova Scotia in 1851:—

		Value.	Hands emp'd.
Saw-mills	No.	1,153	£89,869	1,786
Grist-mills		398	73,649	437
Steam-mills or factories		10	.....	....
Tanneries		237	26,762	374
Leather, manufactured		..	52,625	....
Boots and shoes manufactured		..	78,654	....
Foundries		9	12,900	138
Iron, smelted	tons	400	4,635	....
Value of castings		....	3,486	....
Weaving and Carding establishments	No.	81	11,690	119
Handlooms		11,096	24,486	....
Fulled cloth manufactured	yds.	119,698	.....	....
Not fulled, manufactured		790,104	.....	....
Flannel manufactured		219,352	.....	....
Breweries and distilleries	No.	17	6,032	42
Malt liquor manufactured	gals.	78,076	.....	....
Distilled liquor manufactured		11,900	.....	....
Other factories	No.	131	14,882	185
Agricultural implements manufactured		....	16,640	....
Chairs and cabinet ware manufactured		....	11,155	....
Carriages manufactured		....	9,491	....
Other wooden ware manufactured		....	19,238	....
Coal raised	chaldrons	114,992	.....	....
Lime burnt	casks	28,603	4,433	....
Bricks made	No.	2,845,400	3,211	....
Gypsum quarried	tons	79,795	10,498	....
Grinding stones quarried		.....	5,857	....
Soap manufactured		.....	28,277	....
Candles manufactured		.....	21,210	....
Maple Sugar manufactured	lbs.	110,441	.....	....
Vessels built	No.	486	.....	....
Tonnage		57,776	.....	....
Boats built		2,654	.....	....

THE FIRST DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN AUSTRALIA.

The *Whitehaven Herald* gives the following information respecting the first discovery of gold in Australia:—

"The first piece found was by a native. He was a bushman. The scale of intellect of the Australian is remarkable for its lowness. Seeing his master counting a lot of sovereigns he said he had found a piece of "yellow stuff," far bigger than all those together, which he had hidden, and would bring it to his master, if he would give him a new suit of corduroy. The bargain was struck, after which the man went and produced a lump of Golconda, weighing one hundred and six pounds, and valued at £5,077 4s. 6d."

THE CUMBERLAND COAL AND IRON COMPANY.

The first report of the directors of the Cumberland Coal and Iron Company is just published. This company was organized on the 3d of May last, and owns, in Allegheny County, Maryland, about 7,000 acres of coal lands, with three opened working mines, with fifteen feet coal veins, and the necessary rail-tracks, houses, shops, coal-yards, &c., all of which property formerly belonged to the "Washington," "Astor," "Preston," "Buena Vista," and "People's" Mining Companies, and to some smaller associations.

The cost of this real estate is set down at.....		$3,064,800
The company is also proprietor of canal boats and barges, worth.....		35,884
And has on hand cash and bills receivable for.....	$255,538	
From which deduct debts to be paid by the company.....	156,222	
		99,316
Capital stock not yet issued.....		1,800,000
Making its capital.....		$5,000,000

Lowell Holbrook, of New York, is President, and the following gentlemen constitute the Board of Directors:—

J. W. Tyson and C. M. Thurston, of Maryland; William Young, E. W. Dunham, H. B. Loomis, Charles Day, Henry Coggill, D. Randolph Martin, William H. Appleton, Thomas W. Gale, and Charles B. White, of New York.

Their report expresses a confident opinion of the great value and favorable prospects of the company's property. The expense of getting the article to market is not named in the report, but we learn that such reductions will soon be made in the items constituting its cost, as will allow of its delivery at New York at not far from $3 50 per ton.

Say cost of mining and delivery at Cumberland.....	$0 60
Tolls on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.....	0 46
Freight from Cumberland to Alexandria.....	1 10
Freight from Alexandria to New York from $1 25 to.....	1 50
Total.....	$3 66

THE AUSTRALIAN GOLD DIGGINGS.

Advices have arrived by the Stebonheath, from Port Philip direct, to the 22d April. It appears that the production at the mines was steadily increasing, and was now estimated at £100,000 per week, or at the rate of more than £5,000,000 per annum for this colony alone. The present vessel has brought about 60,000 ounces, valued at £230,000; and the Vanguard, which sailed a few days previously, but which has not yet arrived, took 17,490 ounces, nearly £70,000 worth. The quotation was 60s. to 61s. per ounce. Great complaints continue to be made of the prevalence of crime, owing to the influx of convicts from Van Dieman's Land, many of whom were among the most successful people at the mines. Rain had begun to fall at Mount Alexander, but not so as to increase the facilities for working, and in the other districts it was still delayed. The statement of the public revenue of the colony for the quarter had created both satisfaction and surprise, the increase being £95,592; a sum nearly equal to the whole public revenue of the corresponding quarter of last year. Much of this arose from the duties on spirits, tobacco, and foreign goods. In the territorial revenue, likewise, there was an extraordinary augmentation. For the corresponding quarter of 1851 the total of that revenue was £9,138, and now it was £156,827; the chief items of increase being the land sales, which amounted to £95,248; the gold licenses, which produced £48,597; and the gold escort, which produced £4,489. The rate for bills on England was about 8½ to 10 per cent discount.

A letter from Melbourne says:—"The total population at the diggings is estimated by the chief commissioner at about 35,000, but a considerable portion is migratory,

and not half that number of licenses are issued. The present weekly produce cannot be under 30,000 ounces, or about £100,000 in value, as the government escort alone now brings down about 20,000 ounces, independent of the large quantity conveyed privately. From the post-office to the River Loddon, a distance of six or seven miles, the bed and slopes of Forest Creek present the appearance of being covered with a series of gigantic molehills, interspersed with miserable small tents of every description, the occupants of which have a very squallid, unhealthy appearance, from exposure, privation, and dust, sore eyes being universally prevalent. The roads are now very bad, the cost of carriage from Melbourne being £22 to £25 a ton; but most people are of opinion that, when the rain falls, in about a month, they will be all but impassable, and serious apprehensions are entertained of a scarcity of food during the winter months. The gold is found both in deposit and in the matrix, a quarts vein having been struck at about twenty or thirty feet below the surface, and traced for some distance, which is worked successfully with no other tools or machinery than pickax, hammer, and tin dish. It has also been found in deposit in various strata of alluvial earth, clay, and gravel, and even below the trap-rock, leaving little room to doubt that the supply is not likely to be soon exhausted; while the Mitta-Mitta Fields, near the boundary of the colony, on the Murray, are still all but untried."

MANUFACTURE OF COMBS.

The greatest comb manufactory in the world is in Aberdeen, Scotland; it is that of Messrs. Stewart, Rowell & Co. There are 36 furnaces for preparing horns and tortois-shell for the combs, and no less than 120 iron-screw presses are continually going in stamping them. Steam-power is employed to cut the combs, and an engine of fifty horse-power is barely sufficient to do the work. The coarse combs are stamped or cut out—two being cut in one piece at a time, by a machine invented in England in 1828. The fine dressing combs and all small-tooth combs, are cut by fine circular saws, some so fine as to cut 40 teeth in the space of one inch, and they revolve 5,000 times in a minute. There are 1928 varieties of combs made, and the aggregate number produced, of all these different sorts of combs, average upwards of 1,200 gross weekly, or about 9,000,000 annually; a quantity that, if laid together lengthways, would extend about 700 miles. The annual consumption of ox horns is about 730,000; the annual consumption of hoofs amounts to 4,000,000; the consumption of tortoise-shell and buffalo horn, although not so large, is correspondingly valuable; even the waste composed of horn shavings and parings of hoof, which from its nitrogenized composition, becomes a valuable material in the manufacture of prussiate of potash, amounts to 350 tons in the year; the broken combs in the various stages of manufacture average 50 or 60 gross in a week; the very paper for packing costs $3,000 a year.

A hoof undergoes eleven distinct operations before it becomes a finished comb. In this great comb factory, there are 456 men and boys employed, and 164 women—in all 620 hands. This company commenced business twenty years ago on a very small scale, being much smaller than the smallest works in England. By that determined energy, perseverance, and shrewdness which is characteristic of that people, they have shot ahead of all competitors in Britain. There is a temperance society and a library connected with the works.

MANUFACTURE OF LUMBER IN THE NORTH-WEST.

The number of saws running in 1851, on the Wisconsin River and its tributaries, were, above—

Winnebago, Portage county	77, cutting....feet	48,400,000
Fox River, including Wolf River	56	30,000,000
Mississippi, above mouth of St. Croix	11	15,000,000
St Croix River	17	26,000,000
Chippewa River	15	20,000,000
Black River	10	14,000,000
Total	186	148,400,000
Point au Barques to Algonac, on Lake Huron		98,000,000

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

"AN OLD MERCHANT'S ADVICE."

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchant's Magazine, etc.*:—

SIR:—Your Magazine for July, 1852, has just been handed me by a young gentleman in my employ, and my attention expressly directed to a letter, or rather a piece entitled "*An Old Merchant's Advice.*" With my young friend, (whose principles are too well established to be misled by such articles,) I agree that said piece should never have been admitted into your Magazine without a condemnatory notice from you as conductor of said publication.

Your Magazine, as no doubt you are aware, is extensively used by the younger class, and after you have read over that piece again, you will surely agree with me that it will have a decidedly *bad* tendency, and cannot be without bad effect on the minds of many who need no additional aids to roguery.

I trust you will excuse the liberty thus taken, and regard me as no doubt you are, a friend to good morals. Very truly yours,

BALTIMORE, AUGUST 5, 1852. C. F. P.

Proverbial wisdom has declared the "counsel of a friend" to be of the highest value, and we are the last to deny the truth, "he that hearkeneth unto counsel is wise." We therefore feel not only strengthened in the assurance of our wisdom, but confident that our correspondent in Baltimore will be assured that we regard as the act of a true friend the admonition he has sent us, touching a certain "*jeu d'esprit*" with which we thought to enliven the "MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES" in the number of the *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1852 (p. 136). Our explanation—our *defense* we have already anticipated—the piece *was* a *jeu d'esprit*. It purports to be "An old Merchant's advice," and in an apparently serious vein of real irony, it gives hints as to the various tricks of trade by which many men make haste to get rich, and which the experience of most who try it, proves the saddest example of "more haste less speed." Pretending to tell the young merchant what he ought to do, it really tells him what he ought not to do, and in a tone of assumed seriousness, exposes practices which men will consent to follow, but hardly dare to confess to themselves, much less frame them into formal maxims of life. By throwing them into the form of grave maxims, their revolting wickedness is made most strikingly apparent.

The same principles, taught in a more serious tone, will be found in the article on "Honesty in Mercantile Life," in our June number (p. 776). Our friend cannot mistake its meaning, and he will please credit us with that meaning, as the one we would always be understood as inculcating.

Our correspondent has heard of parodies. This little piece is a prose parody on the practices of dishonest traders. Perhaps the take-off would have been a little more effectual, had the irony been a little more plainly brought out; but if he will read it over again, he can hardly fail to see the real drift of the piece, and confess that the current dishonesties of trade could hardly be more effectually shown up in their true colors than by such satire. At the same time we must needs admire the moral sensitiveness of our friend, which is up in arms at the slightest assault which he thinks is designed upon the bulwarks of mercantile morality. No one, he may rest assured, feels a livelier anxiety for the preservation, not only from any stain, but from any suspicion, of that mercantile character which should be of the purity of Cæsar's wife, than the editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and we shall be gratified for the advice of all our friends in assisting us in the promotion of this paramount object.

THE MACKEREL FISHERIES.

But few are aware of the great extent of the mackerel and other fisheries of this country. It has been estimated that during the summer months, or rather between June and November, more than twenty thousand vessels are constantly engaged in the different kinds of fisheries, employing no less than 250,000 men. By a treaty with Great Britain, American vessels are allowed the privilege of fishing within certain limits of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the quantity of fish taken from this place alone, is truly astonishing. The coast of Newfoundland yields its codfish to the hardy sailor from May until December, while the better class of mackerel are taken from August to October. Many mackerel, however, of a proper class, are taken along the southern shore of our own country prior to this, but as a general thing they are deemed worthy of little notice. The Bay of Chaleur, along the coast of Prince Edward's Island, the Magdalen Islands and Northumberland Straits, are considered the choicest mackerel grounds. Here the fleet of vessels congregated at one time will often amount to two thousand sail, although, as a general thing, not more than from two to four hundred vessels sail in company. At night, when the fleet is safely anchored, the lanterns lighted on each vessel and swinging upon the shrouds, one may fancy himself looking upon some huge city lying in repose, with its lamps all trimmed and burning.

The bait alone, which is ground up and thrown to the fish to keep them about the vessel, is a very large item in the expense of carrying on the trade. This is either herrings, porgies, or clams, well salted and cleansed, put up expressly for the purpose. The average cost of it is about three-and-a-half dollars per barrel, at least two barrels of which are thrown away per day in good fishing. Allowing at the time we were in the Gulf there were two thousand sail, you then have $16,000 per day, thrown away to the fishes, or say $100 per vessel for each trip; which is below the actual amount, and we thus have the enormous sum of $200,000.

The method of taking the mackerel is very simple. The vessel is "hove to," and men are arranged on the "windward" side, as many as can conveniently stand from bow to stern. Each man is provided with four lines; only two can be used in fast fishing. On each line is attached the hook, which is sunk into an oblong bit of lead, called a "jig." A barrel is placed behind each man, into which the fish are "snapped" as caught, the jaw tearing out as easily as though made of paper. Owing to this tenderness of the jaw, the fish must be hauled very carefully, though with great rapidity. One man stands "amidships," throwing the bait which has been carefully ground, to keep the fish about the vessel, while the hooks are baited with pork rind, a bit of liver, or a piece of the mackerel itself. When caught, they are split, gibbed, scraped washed in three waters, and then salted—the whole being done with astonishing celerity.

THE PROMPT MERCHANTS' CLERK.

A correspondent of the London *Youth's Instructor* relates an anecdote, which we transfer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine* for the especial benefit of young men entering mercantile life:—

"I once new a young man," said an eminent preacher the other day, in a sermon to young men, "that was commencing life as a clerk. One day his employer said to him, 'Now, to-morrow, that cargo of cotton must be got out and weighed, and we must have a regular account of it.'

"He was a young man of energy. This was the first time he had been intrusted to superintend the execution of this work. He made his arrangements over night, spoke to the men about their carts and horses, and, resolved to begin very early in the morning, he instructed the laborers to be there at half-past four o'clock. His master comes in, and, seeing him sitting in the counting-house, looks very black, supposes that his commands had not been executed.

"'I thought,' said the master, 'you were requested to get out that cargo this morning.'

"'It is all done,' said the young man, 'and here is the account of it.'

"He never looked behind him from that moment—never! His character was fixed, confidence was established. He was found to be the man to do the thing with promptness. He very soon came to be one that could not be spared; he was as necessary to the firm as any of the partners. He was a religious man, and went through a life of great benevolence, and at his death was able to leave his children an ample fortune. He was not smoke to the eye nor vinegar to the teeth, but just the contrary."

COMMERCIAL GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES.

From the able and eloquent speech of the Hon. DAVID SEYMOUR, of New York, on the River and Harbor Bill, delivered in the House of Representatives, July 21, 1852, we extract the following brief but comprehensive picture of our commercial progress:

"Let us briefly survey the present position of our Republic, and see what it demands of us as wise and patriotic legislators. Our country is rapidly advancing in her career of greatness. Compare its situation in 1838, when the last general appropriations for the rivers and harbors were made, with its present condition, and we are astonished at the progress we have made. No other nation has achieved so much in the same period. We have peaceably annexed one empire, settled the boundaries of another, and conquered a third. Our Commerce, which, fourteen years ago, was found in three grand divisions—that of the western rivers, the northwestern lakes, and the Atlantic coast—has crossed the isthmus, and now covers the shores of the western ocean. To our two maritime fronts, the Atlantic and the Gulf, we have added the Pacific. And there from a coast of sixteen hundred miles in extent, we look out upon the primeval habitations of our race—the seats of ancient empire—and the most inviting field ever opened to the moral or physical energies of man. Nor is the dominion thus gained a barren scepter. On the contrary, the precious metals found in abundance in California have placed in the hands of this Republic a monetary power which, ere long, will transfer commercial ascendancy from Europe to America, and will adjust in our great commercial emporium the balance-sheet of the world. And can such a nation be longer held in the swaddling bands of its infancy or the leading-strings of its childhood? The enterprise of our country, always bold and restless, is already, by the liberal aids of an improved science and the vast accessions of capital, driven onward almost with maddening speed. Nothing can arrest the progress of individual effort in all the avenues of Commerce. You may excite the apprehensions of the timid, the doubts of the wavering, or the opposition of the enemies of progress, but all will be in vain. The mighty current of events, as they are ordained, will, in spite of our resistance, bear us onward and still onward to our destiny. It is, then, the part of wisdom, of exalted patriotism, to grasp the helm of the ship of State, and, with a strong and bold hand, guide it on its course by the chart of the Constitution.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

The *Pittsburgh Daily Despatch*, puts a question, and makes a statement in the following paragraph, which we are assured is supported by the most incontestable evidence.

"How is THIS?"—Can a Commission Merchant in "good and regular standing" in a Christian Church, go to a steamboat officer and bargain for the shipment of say 400 bbls of flour at *forty* cents per barrel, provided the steamboat officer will agree to fill up the bill at *fifty* cents per bbl.—so as to enable the merchant to make $40 over his legitimate commission, &c., off the confiding consigner or owner, who pays this forty dollars more than he need pay, if the whole transaction were straight forward and *bona fide*? Is this a "fair business transaction?" Is it honorable or even honest? Is it not a mean fraud? We think so—yet it is done here, not occasionally, but constantly—by people affecting honor and even piety. A man who confides in them is made to suffer to the tune of five or ten cents per hundred on the freight which he entrusts to them for shipment, and steamboatmen must become parties to the fraud, or in case of refusal, give place to those who will. We may be told this is none of our business, but it *is*—all that demoralizes or depraves public sentiment, concerns every wise citizen—and it is our duty to see that neither steamboatmen nor other men are tempted or compelled to do what they feel and acknowledge to be wrong, by those who profess to be moral *Christian* men. We have a host of witnesses to support our statements, if anybody doubts.

ABSORPTION IN BUSINESS.

Some men devote themselves so exclusively to their business, as to almost entirely neglect their domestic and social relations. A gentleman of this class having failed, was asked what he intended to do. "I am going home to get acquainted with my wife and children," said he.

THOMAS TARBELL, A BOSTON MERCHANT.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

DEAR SIR:—The public journals of Boston have recently announced the death of an old merchant, and a good man—Mr. THOMAS TARBELL. He was the poor man's friend, and for years was ever ready to dispense the bounty of our public charities, and to aid the poor and friendless by his purse and counsel.

One provision of his will deserves a record in your valuable Magazine. He has provided for the ultimate payment of the balance remaining unpaid on old debts which he was owing in 1826, when misfortunes in business caused him to make an assignment of his property.

Such instances are rare, and should be noticed. His friends, and the community among which he lived, will share the feelings of pride and pleasure he would have enjoyed, had his measure of success while he lived enabled him then to have carried into effect this cherished purpose of his heart.

"The good that men do lives after them."

Respectfully, you obedient servant, * *

THE FRENCH ROSE TRADE.

The Commerce in roses is an entirely French business. As early as 1779, France exported rose bushes, and for the last twenty years enormous quantities are sent from France to England, Russia, Germany, and the United States. The department of the Seine alone, it is said, produces every year roses to the amount of a million of francs. A hundred thousand stalks (pieds) are sold in the flower-market, they (francs de pied?) amount to a hundred and fifty thousand more; finally, the grafts which are exported are valued at eight hundred thousand. Four millions francs value of flowers are sold in the Paris market alone, independently of what are furnished for public and private festivals. Paris consumes five millions francs worth of strawberries; five hundred hectares (a hectare is a little over two acres) of the department of the Seine is devoted to this interesting culture. Epiny, near St. Denis, sends great quantities of asparagus to England every day. Meaden sends as large an amount of plums, while Honfleur and its suburbs dispatch to London a million francs worth of melons.

Kitchen-garden culture may then be called a peculiarly French branch of industry, for its productions figure in all the European markets, and even in Senegal and North America.

THE ROMANCE OF TRADE.

Lundy Foot, the celebrated snuff manufacturer of Dublin, originally kept a small tobacconist's shop at Limerick, Ireland. One night his house, which was uninsured, was burnt to the ground. As he contemplated the smoking ruins on the following morning, in a state bordering on despair, some of the poor neighbors, groping among the embers for what they could find, stumbled upon several canisters of unconsumed but half-baked snuff, which they tried, and found so grateful to their noses, that they loaded their waistcoat pockets with the spoil.

Lundy Foot, roused from his stupor, at length imitated their example, and took a pinch of his own property, when he was instantly struck by the superior pungency and flavor it had acquired from the great heat to which it had been exposed. Treasuring up this valuable hint, he took another house, in a place called "Black Yard," and preparing a large oven for the purpose, set diligently about the manufacture of that high-dried commodity, which soon became known as "Black Yard Snuff"—a term subsequently corrupted into the more familiar word "Blackguard."

Lundy Foot, making his customers pay liberally through the nose for one of the most "distinguished" kinds of snuff in the world, soon raised the price of his production, took a larger house in the city of Dublin, and was often heard to say—"I made a very handsome fortune by being, as I supposed, utterly ruined!"

When he was rich enough to own and use a carriage, he applied to Lord Norbury for an appropriate motto for its panels. The wily Judge suggested the Latin phrase, "*Quid rides.*"

EXPEDIENTS OF SMUGGLERS.

A gentleman from Paris writes the following:—I saw through one of the windows of the Mayor's office, in the twelfth arondisement, the body of a negro hanging by the neck. At the first glance, and even at the second, I took it for a human being, whom disappointed love, or perhaps an expeditious judge, had disposed of so suddenly; but I soon ascertained that the ebony gentleman in question was only a large doll, as large as life. What to think of this I did not know, so I asked the door-keeper the meaning of it.

"This is the Contraband Museum," was the answer; and on my showing a curiosity to examine it, he was kind enough to act as my cicerone.

In a huge dirty room are scattered over the floor, along the walls and on the ceiling, all the inventions of roguery which had been confiscated from time to time by those guardians of the law, the revenue officers.

It is a complete arsenal of the weapons of smuggling, all, unfortunately, in complete confusion.

Look before you; there is a hogshead dressed up for a nurse, with a child that holds two quarts and a half. On the other side are logs hollow as the Trojan horse, and filled with armies of cigars. On the floor lies a huge boa constrictor, gorged with China silks; and just beyond it, a pile of coal curiously perforated with spools of cotton.

The colored gentlemen who excited my sympathy at first, met with his fate under the following circumstances:—He was built of tin, painted black, and stood like a heyduck, or Ethiopean chasseur, on the foot-board of a carriage, fastened by his feet and hands. He had frequently passed through the gates, and was well known by sight to the soldiers, who noticed he was always showing his teeth, which they supposed to be the custom of his country.

One day the carriage he belonged to was stopped by a crowd at the gate. There was, as usual, a grand chorus of yells and oaths, the vocal part being performed by the drivers and cartmen, and the instrumental by the whips.

The negro, however, never spoke a single word. His good behaviour delighted the soldiers, who held him up as an example to the crowd.

"Look at that black fellow," they cried, "see how well he behaves! Bravo, nigger, bravo!"

He showed a perfect indifference to their applause.

"My friend," said a clerk at a barrier, jumping up on the foot-board, and slapping our sable friend on the shoulder, "we are very much obliged to you."

Oh, surprise! the shoulder rattled. The officer was bewildered, he sounded the footman all over, and found he was made of metal, and as full as his skin could hold of the very best contraband liquor drawn out of his foot.

The juicy mortal was seized at once, and carried off in triumph.

The first night the revenue people drank up one of his shoulders, and he was soon bled to death. It is now six years since he lost all the moisture of his system, and was reduced to a dry skeleton.

CHRONICLES OF THE COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

A correspondent of the *Charleston Courier* has culled from the pages of "*The Political Magazine and Parliamentary, Naval, Military and Literary Journal*," published in London in 1780, with a view to ascertain facts in relation to that city, and incidentally to Carolina. We give a few of his extracts, as follows:—

"In 1686 the Spaniards invaded Carolina. In April, 1698, the labors of Locke were abrogated on the requisition of the Carolinas themselves. It was not until twenty-seven years after that this province acquired the appellation of North and South Carolina. About this time rice was introduced by a brigantine from Madagascar, touching at Sullivan's Island in her way to Britain. About the beginning of this century Sir Nathaniel Johnson introduced the culture of silk. After a long and violent opposition, the Church of England was established by law.

"In 1715 Charleston consisted of five or six hundred houses. In 1740 a great fire, in the space of six hours, destroyed three hundred of the best houses.

"In 1744 two hundred and thirty vessels loaded at Charleston; fifteen hundred seamen, at least, employed.

"In 1745 indigo was discovered to be a spontaneous plant in the province. Many of the planters doubled their capital every three or four years by planting indigo.

"In 1724 British goods valued at near £60,000, imported. Eighteen thousand barrels of rice, 52,000 barrels of pitch, tar, and turpentine, with deer-skins, furs, and raw silk were exported to England.

"In 1761 rice 40s. a barrel, indigo 2s. a pound; yet as the quantity increased the price rose, for in 1771 rice sold at £3 10s. a barrel, and indigo at 3s. a pound. At the peace of 1762, and for three years after, on an average the export was £395,666 13s. 4d., but in 1771 the export had risen to the amazing value of £756,000 sterling.

"In 1773, 507 vessels cleared at Charleston. In December, 1799, the militia muster roll in Charleston 1,400 men; inhabitants 14,000. Province militia muster roll 13,000. Total white inhabitants 65,000. The whole number of negroes and mulattoes in the province upward of 100,000."

POLITENESS IN DUNNING.

An old gentleman had owed a firm for years; at last, after everybody's patience and temper were exhausted, a clerk named Frank undertook to get the money.

Frank called upon the gentleman, and met with a polite reception, and the usual answer, with the addition, "You need not trouble yourself, young man, about the matter; I will make it all right."

"O, no," replied Frank, "I could not think for a moment of compelling you to call at the store for a few dollars. It will not be the slightest inconvenience for me to stop in, as I pass your place of business six times a day, to and from my meals, and I can call every time I go by."

"Here," said the old fellow to his bookkeeper, alarmed at the prospect of being dunned six times a day for the next six months, "pay this impertinent rascal. He can beat me in politeness, and, if he wants a situation, I will give him two thousand dollars a year."

SMUGGLING IN CHINA.

A correspondent of the London *Spectator*, whose letter is published in the *Chinese Repository*, says:—

Smuggling is no new thing in China. Nothing in all the land seems better regulated, or to be conducted more systematically than this branch of business. How far its tariff of duties has been reduced to writing no one can tell; indeed, every tariff in China is merely nominal, as different from the reality as can well be imagined. One of these new features, the only one I will allude to, seems to have resulted from the stolidity of the functionaries connected with the native custom-house department. Because a foreign vessel happened to be furnished with a certain kind of machinery, her owners must be subjected to any amount of annoyance the custom-house people might see fit to impose. The managers of the steamer were not to be wronged in this way, nor were those who wished to ship cargo by her; and accordingly they arranged their own business. The amount of duties lost on the one side, and saved on the other, by this measure, must, some persons say, be reckoned by thousands of dollars!

STUDY AND BUSINESS.

In learning, concentrate the energy of mind principally on the study; the attention divided among several studies is weakened by the division; besides, it is not given to man to excel in many things. But while one study claims your main attention, make occasional excursions into the fields of literature and science, and collect materials for the improvement of your favorite pursuit.

The union of contemplative habits constructs the most useful and perfect character; contemplation gives relief to action; action gives relief to contemplation. A man unaccustomed to speculation is confined to a narrow routine of action; a man of more speculation constructs visionary theories, which have no practical utility.

Excellence in a profession, and success in business, are to be obtained only by persevering industry. None who thinks himself above his vocation can succeed in it, for we cannot give our attention to what our self-importance despises. None can be eminent in his vocation who devotes his mental energy to a pursuit foreign to it, for success in what we love is failure in what we neglect.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Napoleon Dynasty; or, the History of the Bonaparte Family. An entirely new work.* By the BERKELEY MEN. With twenty authentic portraits. 8vo., pp. 621. New York: Cornish & Lamport.

This may truly be called a new work on the Life and Family of Napoleon. It is summary and rapid as a historical outline, and presents rather a dramatic life of the great emperor. But the scenes are drawn in such striking colors, and with such distinctness of thought, that the minds of all readers will be engrossed by the narrative. Its style is suited to make as strong an impression upon the popular mind as "an array with banners." And, in truth, it possesses much of the glitter and the clang of arms, with a corresponding force and strength in the thought. It is a work that all will be pleased to dip into, and be moved by many striking views which it presents in the life of this great man; but it is not a volume of calm and patient thought, over whose pages the scholar or the historical reader would delight to linger as a fountain of clear and refreshing intelligence. Striking as are many of its pages, to such a mind they are not satisfactory, and one looks over them as he would gaze at the brilliant and wonderful play of an aurora, whose impressions afterwards fade away. We have here the Bonaparte Dynasty brought together in a group. Seventeen distinct biographies are arranged around the principal figure of the picture. The portions devoted to the sisters of Bonaparte are quite interesting; and truly the entire volume will be found to contain new material of much extent. It is issued in a very fine style by the publishers, with the exception of the portraits, which are too poor for a book of such pretensions.

2.—*Life and Public Services of Henry Clay. Down to* 1848. By EPES SARGENT. Edited to his death by H. GREELEY. 12mo., pp. 491. Auburn: Derby & Miller.

The life of Clay is a subject of interest to every American citizen. The lead which he took in public affairs, the influence upon the prominent measures of the country, which he exerted for so long a period, render a familiarity with his career indispensable to every one who would understand the true spirit of his times. In these pages we are presented with all that is important in the life of Mr. Clay, brief, condensed, and yet with sufficient fullness to be satisfactory to the general reader. The work is written in an animated and popular style, such as will meet with the approbation of the most extensive class of readers.

3.—*The Cæsars.* By THOMAS DE QUINCY, author of the "Confessions of an English Opium Eater." 12mo., pp. 295. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the fourth volume of the series of De Quincy's writings, and in our opinion the best of them. No one who possesses a taste for the charms of literature can read its pages without delight. The characters of the Roman Cæsars are delineated with a correctness of perception, a delicate and masterly appreciation, and, withal, a modesty and gracefulness of language, that holds the reader's attention fixed upon the polished periods that flow beneath his eyes. The series is not yet complete. It is to be followed by the autobiography that appeared in Tait's Magazine, and by the "Sketches of Literary Men," when it will form one of the choicest series that has been lately published.

4.—*Meyer's Universum.* Part 3. New York: Hermann J. Meyer.

The subjects of the plates in this part are "The Walhalla," in Bavaria; "The Temple of the Sun at Balbec;" and "Street Scenery in Constantinople." The plates are very finely executed. The text which explains them is performed with much fullness of historical incident by Mr. C. Dana, and is exceedingly interesting and valuable.

5.—*Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation. With a Sequel.* 12mo., pp. 288. Cincinnati: A. J. & U. P. James.

This is a new edition of an able and important work, already well known to the public, for the peculiar views which it presents. It is issued in a cheap and serviceable style.

6.—*The History of the United States of America, from the Adoption of the Federal Constitution to the End of the Sixteenth Congress.* By RICHARD HILDRETH. Vol. 3. Madison and Monroe. 8vo., pp. 739. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume resumes the narrative with the extra session of Congress in October, 1807, and closes with the session of Congress in March, 1821. It completes the work according to the plan of the author in six volumes, of which the first three are chiefly taken up with the narrative of this country previous to the adoption of the Constitution, and the last three with its national history. In many respects this is a model history. It occupies a field somewhat distinct from Bancroft's, so that neither one detracts from the value of the other. It is a severe narrative of facts, possessing very little of that rich and glowing eloquence of Bancroft, but chaste, calm, severe, and truthful to the extremest details. Its statements of facts are such as to obtain for it the rank of high authority, and its inferences, its general views, and its suggestions respecting national principles, are such as coincide with the views of those who hold the power, and wield the most intelligent influence in the country. We do not view it as a work in which the democratic element is supreme as in Bancroft's; neither can it be regarded as always truly expressing the sentiment of the people as such, in distinction and opposition to the other powerful influences in our social system. It is, however, an invaluable, indispensable work to every one who desires to comprehend our national history.

7.—*The Mother at Home; or, the Principles of Maternal Duty familiarly illustrated.* By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. Improved and Enlarged, with Numerous Engravings. 12mo., pp. 301.

8.—*The Child at Home; or, the Principles of Filial Duty familiarly illustrated.* By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. Greatly Improved and Enlarged, with Numerous Engravings. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These two volumes, each of which is the counterpart of the other, aim to afford to mothers, in the common walks of life, plain and simple instruction relative to the right discharge of their mutual duties, and to aid them in leading the minds of their children to proper views of their obligations to God, to their parents, and to one another. Each is intended for perusal both by parent and child. They are admirable works for the object in view. The first edition of them has been translated into various languages, and circulated extensively throughout the Christian world.

9.—*Lotus Eating; A Summer Book.* By GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS. Illustrated by Kennet. 12mo., pp. 206. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The Hudson, Catskill, Trenton, Niagara, Saratoga, Lake George, Nahant, and Newport, are the places of which pictures are presented in this volume. The style of each is uniform, as the work of one hand. They are pleasant, entertaining, and agreeable, and far more meritorious than many works of the kind. But we must confess there are not manifest to us those surprising attractions which many have found in this volume. To us there is none of that clearness of thought or expression which is the true index of all superior intellectual or literary talent.

10.—*Marco Paul's Voyage and Travels. Erie Canal.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 208.

11.—*Marco Paul in New York.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 192.

12.—*Marco Paul in Maine.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 190.

13.—*Marco Paul in Vermont.* By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 208. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is the aim of these volumes both to entertain the youthful reader with narratives of juvenile adventures, and to communicate, in connection with them, as extensive and varied information as possible, respecting the geography, the scenery, the customs, and the institutions of the country as they present themselves to the observation of the little traveler under the guidance of an intellegent and well informed companion, suited to assist him in the acquisition of knowledge and the formation of character. Perhaps there is no one among the popular writers of the day so capable as the author of these volumes to accomplish such a task. The various works are unexceptionable in sentiment, extremely entertaining in their contents, and are among the best books which can be put into the hands of youth.

14.—*The Holy Bible, Translated from the Latin Vulgate; diligently Compared with the Hebrew, Greek, and other Editions in divers Languages. With useful Notes, Critical, Historical, Controversial, and Explanatory, selected from the most Eminent Commentators.* By Rev. GEORGE HAYDOCK. 4to., Nos. 1 and 2. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This will make a very splendid edition of the Bible, if the elegance of these parts is preserved throughout. The typography is extremely beautiful, and the paper is firm, substantial, clear, and white. Each number is embellished with a well-executed engraving, of superior merit in its design. It is published under the approbation of the Archbishop.

15.—*Up Country Letters.* Edited by Professor B——, National Observatory. 12mo., pp. 327. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Few readers will be prepared to anticipate, from the title of this volume, the genuine entertainment which its pages will afford. It describes no great events, or distinguished and blazing characters; but it takes the reader up into a quiet nook among the hills, and spreads before him such a variety of incidents and events, so full of real character and true feeling, in quiet life, that the gratification is far more intense than is afforded by subjects of much greater pretensions. It is written in a smooth and polished style, admirably adapted to its character, and is quite an original and racy work in these days, when the number of books is legion.

16.—*Book of Snobs.* By W. M. THACKERAY. 12mo., pp. 279. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Snobs are to be found in every society. Their two features are set forth in these pages with all the wit and sarcasm of Thackeray's inimitable pen. Every reader will be entertained with his truthful delineations. It forms one of the series of Appletons' admirable popular Library, and is entitled to a place among the choicest of these volumes.

17.—*The Laws of Life; with Special Reference to Physical Education.* By ELIZABETH BLOCKWELL, M. D. 12mo., pp. 179. New York: G. P. Putnam.

This volume consists of a series of lectures delivered to a class of ladies during the spring. It is devoted to physical education, the conditions of health, and the correction of vicious habits. It is unexceptionable in the manner in which it treats these important subjects, and indicates a thorough and scientific education, rare practical sense and great extent of observation, on the part of the writer. It cannot fail of producing an important influence upon the health and physical condition of woman.

18.—*Scenes and Thoughts in Europe.* By GEO. H. CALVERT. Second series. 12mo., pp. 185. New York: G. P. Putnam.

The scenes described in this volume occured in parts of Germany, Switzerland, and France. They are of an instructive character. The author is thoughtful at all times, and his reflections contain more or less of interest to all readers. It is in some respects a volume of a higher order than such works generally are.

19.—*Aretic Journal; or, Eighteen Months in the Polar Regions.* By Lieut. OSBORN. 12mo., pp. 216. New York: G. P. Putnam.

The author of this volume commanded one of the vessels of the Royal Naval Expedition which sailed from Woolwich, England, in 1850, to search for Sir John Franklin. The vessel under his command was a steamer. The expedition was directed to explore Barrow's Straits south-westerly to Cape Walker, and westerly toward Melville Island, and north-westerly up Wellington Channel. The voyage was a perilous one, and its incidents are described with much spirit, and present us with many new ideas respecting that inhospitable portion of the globe.

20.—*The Art-Journal for August.* New York: George Virtue.

The first embellishment of this number consists of an engraving of a statue of "Highland Mary," by B. E. Sperm. The engraving is very finely done, but some parts of the design are clumsy. The next is the "Raffle for the Watch," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery; and the last is a rather fine engraving of a "Persian Warrior." There are, in addition, many lesser engravings and cuts with the usual amount of reading on artistic subjects. It is beyond question the best work of its class.

21.—*Eoline: Magnolia Vale. A Novel.* By CAROLINE LEE HENTZ. 12mo., pp. 261. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

22.—*Pencil Sketches; or, Outlines of Character and Manners.* By Miss Leslie. Including *Washington Potts*, with other stories. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 216 and 216. Philadelphia: A Hart.

Many of our readers may, perhaps, remember this tale, which was first published some years since, and very favorably received. The characters and customs of former days invest it with all the attractiveness of novelty. It is entertaining, written in a commendable manner, and well worthy of perusal.

23.—*The American Flower-Garden Companion. Revised and Enlarged.* By Edward Sagers. Fourth edition. 12mo., pp. 207. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

It is the design of this work to aid those who are desirous of becoming acquainted with the culture of flowers, and it presents a large amount of useful matter within the compass of a convenient manual of reference. Directions are given for laying out flower gardens, and descriptive lists are added of the various flowers and shrubs best adapted to the American flower-garden.

24.—*Lydia: a Woman's Book.* By Mrs. Newton Crosland, author of "Partners for Life." 12mo., pp. 287. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This is a picture of woman's mind and heart, drawn by a woman's pen, or rather it is a picture of certain phases of life "from a woman's point of view." It contains scenes of much interest and power. It delineates the struggle between truth and falsehood with unusual ability, and in a style that will be appreciated by cultivated readers.

25.—*Single Blessedness; or Single Ladies and Gentlemen against the Slanders of the Pulpit, the Press, and the Lecture-Room, addressed to those who are really wise, and those who fancy themselves so.* 12mo., pp. 297. New York: C. S. Francis.

This is an effort to show that the unmarried state is a blessed one. It contains many thoughts which will be entertaining to those whose experience is limited in that state, and shows how well the case can be argued. At any rate, let the Bachelors have a hearing.

26.—*Thoughts on the Original Unity of the Human Race. Second Edition, with Additions and Improvements.* By Charles Caldwell, M. D. 12mo., pp. 165. Cincinnati: J. A. & U. P. James.

In this volume the author aims to disprove the opinion of the original unity of the human race. He entertains the belief that he possesses some peculiar qualifications for this task, arising from his singular independence of mind. However this may be, the reader will find the case well stated in these pages, and enforced by many strong arguments.

27.—*Monterey Conquered; a Fragment from La Gran Quivera, or Rome Unmasked. A poem.* 12mo., pp. 148. New York: C. Shepard & Co.

The beautiful and romantic region of the South-West was before the author, as the scene in which the events of this poem are conceived. Nor was the beautiful poem of Campbell, entitled "Wyoming," absent from his mind. He has written in a flowing verse, many passages of which possess merit. The poem will be found attractive and entertaining.

28.—*Scenes from Christian History.* 12mo., pp. 272. Boston: Crosby & Nichols. New York: C. S. Francis.

Some of those striking scenes which have taken place in the progress of Christianity are here briefly and clearly related. They serve to unfold the operations of Christian principles, and are so presented as to stimulate the youthful reader to prosecute an investigation into more extended and learned works on the subject.

29.—*Tallis' Scripture Natural History for Youth.* Part 14. New York: J. Tallis & Company.

A very elegant work, which presents the natural history of all the animals and birds mentioned in Scripture. The plates are executed with great taste and neatness.

30.—*The Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* By R. M. Martin, Parts 48 and 49. New York: J. Tallis & Co.

These parts contain very finished engravings of the cities of Exeter and Bristol, England, with some further pages of the index of the work.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1852.

Art. I.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF CHILI.

Chili extends along the Pacific from about 25° to 41° 50′ south latitude; the island of Chiloe is separated from the continent by the straits of Chacao, and extends to 43° 30′ south latitude. Chili lies between 69° and 72° west longitude; from south to north its length is about 1,170 miles, its breadth varies from 100 to 200 miles.

On the north Chili is separated from Bolivia by a desert, the boundary-line on the coast of the Pacific is near the village of Paposo.

The Andes, the highest part of which constitutes the eastern boundary-line of Chili, together with the high mountain masses which form the western declivity of the Andes, occupy a great part of the area of Chili; north of the Cuesta de Chacabuco, there are valleys between lofty ridges similar to the valleys of Peru; south of that there are extensive plains, and few ridges of hills except along the coast, where the highlands are almost continuous.

The western declivity of the Andes is abrupt and intersected by ravines, through which the rivers descend with impetuosity. The parts fit for cultivation are limited to where these ravines change into vales or plains. Southward the lower declivities are covered with fruit, northward they are generally bare and rocky.* There are silver mines, but few of them are

* In the narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, Captain Wilkes observes:—"On approaching the coast of Chili, every one is anxious to get a sight of the Cordilleras. There are only two periods during the day in which they can be seen to advantage; namely, in the morning before sunrise, and in the evening at sunset. The first is the most striking view. The outline is at that time of a golden hue, and may be easily traced, in a long line running north and south. This gradually brightens, and is lost the moment the sun is seen. The evening view gives rise to disappointment. The mountains are seen at a great distance, (eighty miles in a bird's flight,) reflecting the setting sun, and, in consequence, appear much lower than is anticipated."

worked. The hilly country is, in many parts, sandy or rocky, without any vegetation excepting some patches of cactus and coarse grass. The crops of maize in the mountain districts are said not to be sufficient for the inhabitants, who derive their chief means of subsistence from the labor in, and produce of, the silver and copper mines, and partly also from the fruits of the upper valleys. The plains, in most parts, afford good pastures. Some districts are fit for agriculture, and the remaining portions are sandy flats. The arable districts of Chili supply the countries of South America on the Pacific with grain, and the pastures with jerked beef and hides. The undulated country between the plains and the sea is, in many parts, covered with stunted trees; but grapes, and other delicious fruits, are also grown in the hilly countries.

Rivers. The rivers of Chili, north of the Maypù, bring down little water; none are navigable; they serve, however, the important purpose of irrigating the lands. South of the Maypù, in 34°, the rain falls in sufficient quantities, and the rivers, though deeper, are not used for irrigation. The River Maule is navigable for vessels drawing about seven feet of water; it is navigable for river barges for about twenty miles. The Biobio, the largest of the rivers of Chili, flows a course of nearly 200 miles; at its mouth it is two miles wide, but too shallow for large vessels to enter. It is navigable for river craft to Nacimiento, about 100 miles from its mouth. The River Callacalla is deep enough for large vessels to enter its mouth. There are no lakes of any importance in the valleys and plains. In the Andes there are some lakes, but, as far as known, the largest is not more than fifteen miles in length.

Climate. Extending from north to south for sixteen degrees, with a very irregular surface, the temperature of the climate of Chili is consequently variable. In the valleys, especially in that of Copiabo, years pass over without rain falling. Further south showers occur only during three or four years, after which a rainy season drenches these southern valleys. In Aconcagua, still further south, the number of rainy days do not generally exceed fourteen to twenty-one. South of the River Maypù rain falls sufficient for the cultivation of grain. At and near the River Biobio, rain falls regularly in winter, otherwise the sky is cloudless during six or seven months of the year; south of that river the rains are irregular, and fall heavily. The regions where rain falls are covered with forests; many of the trees afford excellent timber. In the arid regions, a few shrubs, stunted trees, and cactus, are the chief natural products.

The vegetable productions cultivated are similar to those of Southern Europe. Maize is cultivated in the northern parts of Chili; wheat and barley are generally grown in the southern plains; and wheat and flour are exported to Peru and other places. Grapes, fruits, and such vegetables as are common in Southern Europe, are produced abundantly in the valleys as far south as the River Biobio. The wines, of tolerable quality, are made for home use. Timber is exported from Chili and other parts.

The pastures of the southern provinces feed large herds of cattle; jerked beef, tallow, hides, and live stock are exported. Guanacoes and llamas abound in the northern provinces.

Minerals. Gold is found in the sands of the rivers. It was formerly, but not at present, collected. Silver mines exist in the Andes, south of 33°; north of that parallel they are numerous in the ridges between the valleys. In the arid and sterile desert between the valleys of Copiabo and Huasco,

they are worked to a considerable extent. Copper ore abounds in the same region, and is imported into England, chiefly into Swansea, to be smelted. Lead and iron exist, but they are not worked. In the country on the northern banks of the River Biobio there are extensive coal-fields partially worked. Salt is made from the water of a salt lake; it is also imported, partly from Peru, by sea, and from the native tribes of Patagonia, who make it from the salt lakes of that country.

Population. The population of Chili consists of the descendants of the Spaniards, and aboriginal tribes. All the inhabitants, north of the River Biobio, are of European race, with scarcely any mixture of Indian blood. The aboriginals occupy almost exclusively the country south of the River Biobio. South of the Biobio the inhabitants known under the name of Araucanians, have preserved their independence in defiance of the Spaniards. They derive their subsistence chiefly from cultivating maize, potatoes, beans, and vegetables; and they rear large herds of cattle and horses. During the war of independence they made destructive inroads upon the country north of the Biobio; a successful war was afterwards carried on against them, which ended in a peaceful agreement.

As no census, that we know of, has been ever taken of the population, we can only state that, by an estimate made some years ago, the population was stated at 1,200,000 souls. The present population is considered to exceed 1,300,000 souls, exclusive of the Araucanians.

Chili is divided into eight provinces, the area of which is estimated in square miles as follows:—

Coquimbo.....square miles	48,000	Concepcion .....square miles	18,000
Aconcagua.....	14,000	Valdivia.....	40,000
Santiago.....	12,000	Chiloe.....	11,000
Colchagua.....	15,000		
Maule.....	12,000	Total area.....	170,000

Towns. Copiabo, in the valley of the same name, about forty-five miles from the sea, has nearly 3,000 inhabitants. Its port on the coast is bad, as the surf rolls in heavily, and the landing is very difficult; copper, copper ore, and silver are laden at this port, which has a village with about 1,100 inhabitants. Ballenar, in the valley of the River Huasco, about forty-five miles from the sea, owes its rise to some silver mines in the neighborhood. It contains about 7,000 inhabitants, and takes its name from Ballenagh, in Ireland, the birth-place of the family of O'Higgins. La Serena, or Coquimbo, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated in the valley of the same name, about seven miles from the sea; it contains nearly 8,000 inhabitants, and exports silver and copper ore; the harbor, which is at the mouth of the river, is one of the best on this coast. Illapel, with about 1,500 inhabitants, is situated in the neighborhood of copper mines.

Concepcion, about two miles from the bank of the Biobio, and six miles from its mouth, was once the capital of Chili. It has been repeatedly destroyed by earthquakes, and devastated by the invasion of the Araucanians. Since its destruction by the great earthquake of 1835, it is nearly all in ruins. Timber and cattle are exported. Valdivia, the capital of the province of the same name, has an excellent harbor, well fortified, and contains about 2,000 inhabitants.

The Island of Chiloe is about 100 miles long, and, on an average, forty miles wide. The western shores of the island are rocky masses rising abruptly from the ocean to the hight of 1,500 to 3,000 feet. The eastern shores

are of moderate elevation, and in their natural state, covered with forests, among which are magnificent timber-trees. Rocky islands are scattered over the Gulf of Anud, most of which are inhabited; Quinchao and Lemuy are populous. The inhabitants of the settlements of Calubco and Carelmapú are chiefly Indians, few in number, and occupied chiefly in cultivating timber. The majority of the inhabitants of Chiloe and of the adjacent islands are aborigines. The whole population of the province of Chiloe in 1832 amounted to 43,000. They export timber, wheat, hams, &c. The shores and bays abound in varieties of excellent fish. The shellfish is described as delicious.

San Carlos is the capital of the province of the same name, with a good harbor, and about 4,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE. The editor of the *Merchants' Magazine* is indebted to an official source for the subjoined summary of the Commerce of Chili in the years 1850 and 1851:—

Imports into Chili for home consumption in 1850		$11,788,193
Imports into Chili for home consumption in 1851—		
In the first six months of 1851	$6,542,795	
In the second six months	9,342,177	
		15,884,972
Increase in 1851		$4,096,779
Exports from Chili to foreign countries of home produce and manufactures in 1850		$11,392,452
Exports from Chili to foreign countries of home produce and manufactures in 1851—		
First half-year	$6,126,545	
Second half-year	3,539,809	
		9,666,354
Decrease in 1851		$1,726,098
Exports from Chili to foreign countries of imported merchandise, 1850		$1,033,817
Exports from Chili to foreign countries of imported merchandise, 1851—		
In first six months	$897,456	
In second six months	1,582,581	
		2,480,037
Increase in 1851		$1,446,220

From the preceding statements it appears that the gross value of the foreign Commerce of Chili in 1851 was $28,031,363, which, compared with that of 1850, shows an increase of $3,816,901. Thus:—

	1850.	1851.	Increase.	Decrease.
Imports for home consumption	$11,788,193	$15,884,972	$4,096,779	.....
Exports of home produce and manufactures	11,392,452	9,666,354	.....	$1,726,098
Exports of imported merchandise	1,033,817	2,480,037	1,446,220	.....
Total	$24,214,462	$28,031,363	$5,442,999	
Deduct decrease			1,726,098	
Increase in 1851			$3,816,901	

Calculating the population of Chili at 1,400,000 inhabitants, and dividing the foreign Commerce among them, there falls to the share of each in 1850, $17 2/10, and in 1851, $20 3/10, which is greater than many European States can show.

The foreign Commerce of Chili was distributed, both in 1850 and 1851, among twenty-six countries. In order to show the relative degree of importance of our Commerce with each country in these two years, the following comparative table has been prepared:—

COUNTRIES, THE COMMERCE OF WHICH WITH CHILI HAS INCREASED IN 1851.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
France and her colonies	$1,342,733	$1,705,929	$1,098,580	$851,113
Belgium	166,837	195,372	27,295	2,495
Holland	347,025	402,059	72,783	65,739
Austria	554	.....	822	1,426
Prussia	.....	.....	215	1,016
England and her colonies	4,169,166	4,319,864	4,129,201	4,648,290
Sardinia	59,811	74,410	33,694	21,309
Russia	607	.....	204	5,360
United States	1,032,324	1,211,487	1,566,744	1,447,632
California	879,155	3,382,724	2,445,868	2,067,603
New Grenada	6,071	.....	97,525	225,483
Brazil	288,141	624,877	184,651	513,898
Peru	936,125	1,616,644	1,022,638	1,179,247
Bolivia	477,609	436,988	166,127	209,902
Polynesia	4,472	58,910	1,080	59,352
Total	$9,710,644	$14,029,264	$10,847,427	$11,294,865

	Imports and exports.		Increase.
	1850.	1851.	1851.
France and her colonies	$2,441,313	$2,557,042	$115,729
Belgium	194,132	197,867	3,735
Holland	419,808	467,798	47,990
Austria	1,396	1,426	30
Prussia	215	1,016	801
England and her colonies	8,298,361	8,963,154	664,793
Sardinia	93,505	95,719	2,214
Russia	811	5,360	4,549
United States	2,599,068	2,659,119	60,051
California	3,325,023	5,450,327	2,125,304
New Grenada	103,596	225,483	121,887
Brazil	472,797	1,138,775	665,983
Peru	1,958,763	2,795,891	837,128
Bolivia	643,736	646,890	3,154
Polynesia	5,552	118,262	112,710
Total	$20,558,071	$25,314,129	$4,766,058

COUNTRIES, THE COMMERCE OF WHICH WITH CHILI DECREASED IN 1851.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
Germany	$976,069	$1,089,853	$883,604	$469,155
Denmark	1,940	.....	3,208	1,390
Sweden and Norway	11,941	5,081	731	2,194
Spain and her colonies	114,909	145,510	155,720	74,582
Portugal	19,188	18,168	338	.....
China	236,223	229,848	207,938	42,547
Mexico	113,041	23,839	384	7,532
Central America	121,737	42,241	75,676	103,513
Ecuador	213,859	120,732	42,671	42,774
Uruguay	49,565	10,352	96,358	61,215
Argentine Republic	219,077	170,586	112,214	46,624
Total	$2,077,549	$1,855,708	$1,578,842	$851,526

	Imports and Exports. 1850.	1851.	Decrease. 1851.
Germany	$1,859,673	$1,559,008	$300,665
Denmark	5,148	1,390	3,758
Sweden and Norway	12,672	7,275	5,397
Spain and her colonies	270,629	220,092	50,537
Portugal	19,526	18,168	1,358
China	444,161	271,895	172,266
Mexico	113,425	31,369	82,056
Central America	197,413	145,754	51,659
Ecuador	256,530	163,506	93,024
Uruguay	145,923	71,567	74,356
Argentine Republic	331,291	217,210	114,981
Total	$3,656,391	$2,707,234	$949,157

The foreign Commerce of 1851 yielded to the public treasury $2,724,718, from the various custom-houses, as follows:—

Valparaiso	$2,426,631	Valdivia	$1,387
Coquimbo	87,036	Ancud	3,910
Huasco	26,429	Santa Rosa de los Andes	11,708
Copiapo	145,494		
Talcahuano	21,867	Total	$2,724,718
Constitucion	256		

Of the imports there were—	1850.	1851.
Free	$2,132,333	$4,935,814
Privileged	352,942	663,866
With specific duties	237,474	343,710
With duties levied at various valuations	9,065,444	9,941,582
Total	$11,788,193	$15,884,972
The amount imported by sea was	$11,573,582	$15,716,411
Across the mountains	214,611	168,561
Total	$11,788,193	$15,884,972
The exports were—		
Of home productions	$11,392,452	$9,666,354
Of foreign productions	1,033,807	2,480,037
Total	$12,426,269	$12,146,391

The amount and value of merchandise received in 1851 at the various ports of Chili, in transitu for other countries, are as follows:—

	Quantity.	Value.
By sea ....pkgs.	2,236,705	$25,467,578
By the mountains	24,109	214,249
Total	2,260,814	$25,681,827
The amount in transitu warehoused at custom-house	381,242	$16,360,329
Private warehouses	1,014,195	6,470,421
Forwarded at once on landing, permission being refused to warehouse	865,377	2,951,067
Total	2,260,814	$25,781,867

Of these goods thus warehoused for other countries, there were forwarded in 1851—

	Quantity.	Value.
From customs warehouse....pkgs.	172,144	$5,848,043
From private warehouse	98,136	3,109,207
Total	270,280	$8,957,250

Owing to the civil war with which the republic was afflicted in 1851, the ports of Coquimbo and Talcahuano were closed against all Commerce, both foreign and domestic, from the 7th September to the end of December in that year.

The exports of these two ports, consequently, fell off, as compared with the preceding year, $279,878 in value; and the number of vessels which entered and sailed were only 517 in 1851.

In spite, however, of these drawbacks, the amount of imports for home consumption has steadily progressed; since, comparing 1850 with 1851, there has been an increase of $4,096,779 in the last named year.

The custom-house returns show a corresponding increase in the amount of duties received:—

In 1850 they were.....	$2,626,956
And in 1851 they were.....	2,724,718
Showing an increase of.....	$97,762

MANUFACTURES. The facility with which foreign manufactured goods can be imported into Chili has wisely discouraged the establishment of any important manufactures. A large portion of the population, however, wear home-made stuffs, especially woolen; the importation of British manufactures is increasing; steamboats from England ply along the coast of Chili; but under the Spanish rule the coasting trade was discouraged.

In 1810, the population of Chili rose against Spain, they were defeated in 1814, at Rancagua, by General Osorio, and obliged to submit to their former rulers. In 1817, San Martin, with an army from Mendoza, gained the battles of Chacabuco (1817) and Maypú, (1818,) the result of which was the independence of the country. The constitution then adopted is still considered the fundamental law, and formed on the principle of a centralized government. The executive power is vested in a supreme director. The Legislature is composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senate consists of twenty members at the most, and every 15,000 inhabitants sends a member to the House of Representatives.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES OF CHILI AND VALPARAISO: SANTIAGO COPPER MINES.

Valparaiso has increased in population, extent, and importance within the last twenty years, and has become the great sea-port of Chili and the western coast. Its harbor is inferior to others on the coast, yet it is the nearest and most convenient port to Santiago, the capital.*

Captain Wilkes says:—

* Captain Wilkes observes:—"The northers are greatly dreaded, although I think without much cause. One of them, and the last of any force, I had myself experienced in June, 1822, (whilst in command of a merchant vessel.) In it eighteen sail of vessels were lost. But since that time vessels are much better provided with cables and anchors, and what proved a disastrous storm then would now scarcely be felt. I do not deem the bay so dangerous as it has the name of being. The great difficulty of the port is its confined space, and in the event of a gale, the sea that sets in is so heavy, that vessels are liable to come in contact with each other, and to be more or less injured. The port is too limited in extent to accommodate the trade that is carried on in it. Various schemes and improvements are talked of, but none that are feasible. The depth of water opposes an almost insuperable obstacle to its improvement by piers. The enterprise of the government, and of the inhabitants of Valparaiso, is, I am well satisfied, equal to any undertaking that is practicable.

"From the best accounts, I am satisfied that the harbor is filling up, from the wash of the hills. Although this may seem but a small amount of deposition, yet, after a lapse of sixteen years, the change was quite perceptible to me, and the oldest residents confirmed the fact. The anchorage of the vessels has changed, and what before was thought an extremely dangerous situation, is now considered the best in the event of bad weather. The sea is to be feared rather than the wind, for the latter seldom blows home, because the land immediately behind the city rises in abrupt hills, to the hight of from 800 to 1,500 and 2,000 feet."

"I have had some opportunity of knowing Valparaiso, and contrasting its present state with that of 1821 and 1822. It was then a mere village, composed, with but few exceptions, of straggling ranchos. It has now the appearance of a thickly-settled town, with a population of 30,000, five times the number it had then. It is divided into two parts, one of which is known by the name of the Port, and is the old town; the other by that of the Almendral, occupying a level plain to the east. Its location is by no means such as to show it to advantage. The principal buildings are the custom-house, two churches, and the houses occupying the main street. Most of the buildings are of one story, and are built of adobes or sun-dried brick. The walls of the buildings are from four to six feet thick. The reason of this mode of building is the frequent occurrence of earthquakes. The streets are well paved. The plaza has not much to recommend it. The government-house is an inferior building. Great improvements are now making, and many buildings on the eve of erection.

"They are about bringing water from one of the neighboring springs on the hill, which, if the supply is sufficient, will give the town many comforts. On the hills are many neat and comfortable dwellings, surrounded by flower-gardens. These are chiefly occupied by the families of American and English merchants. This is the most pleasant part of the town, and enjoys a beautiful view of the harbor. The ascent to it is made quite easy by a well-constructed road through a ravine. The hight is 210 feet above the sea. The east end of the Almendral is also occupied by the wealthy citizens. The lower classes live in the ravines. Many of their habitations are scarcely sufficient to keep them dry during the rainy season. They are built of reeds, plastered with mud, and thatched with straw. They seldom contain more than one apartment.

"The well-known hills to the south of the port, called the 'Main and Fore Top,' are the principal localities of the grog-shops and their customers. These two hills, and the gorge (*quebrada*) between them, seem to contain a large proportion of the worthless population of both sexes. The females, remarkable for their black eyes and red 'bayettas,' are an annoyance to the authorities, the trade, and the commanders of vessels, and equally so to the poor sailors, who seldom leave this port without empty pockets and injured health.

"It was difficult to realize the improvement and change that had taken place in the habits of the people, and the advancement in civil order and civilization. On my former visit, there was no sort of order, regulation, or good government. Robbery, murder, and vices of all kinds, were openly committed. The exercise of arbitrary military power alone existed. Not only with the natives, but among foreigners, gambling and knavery of the lowest order, and all the demoralizing effects that accompany them, prevailed.

"I myself saw, on my former visit, several dead bodies exposed in the public squares, victims of the *cuchillo*. This was the result of a night's debauch, and the fracas attendant upon it. No other punishment awaited the culprits than the remorse of their own conscience.

"Now, Valparaiso, and indeed all Chili shows a great change for the better; order reigns throughout; crime is rarely heard of, and never goes unpunished; good order and decorum prevail outwardly everywhere; that engine of good government, an active and efficient police, has been established. It is admirably regulated, and brought fully into action, not only for the protection of life and property, but in adding to the comforts of the inhabitants."

The Chilians, when compared with other South Americans, love their country, and are fond of their homes. The people are attached to agriculture, and the lower orders are better disposed towards foreigners than in the other Spanish *republics*. Schools and colleges have been established, and a desire to extend the benefits of education throughout the population is evinced.

The shops are well filled with articles of English, American, and French

manufacture. The markets are abundantly supplied. There are no market-gardens in the vicinity of Valparaiso, and most of the vegetables are brought from the valley of Quillota, in panniers, on the backs of mules; grass or clover is brought to market on horseback, which almost covers both horse and rider.

SANTIAGO. The elevation of Santiago above the sea is 1,591 feet, and stands on the third step or plain from the coast. Its entrance is through avenues between high adobe walls.

The Cordilleras have at all times an imposing aspect when seen from the neighborhood of Santiago, and their irregular outline is constantly varying under the effects of light and shade. Santiago is surrounded by orchards, gardens, farms, and grazing-grounds. The city being inclosed by high adobe walls, gives it a gloomy appearance until entered, when the streets have a fresh and clean look—it is laid out in squares. The streets are paved, and have side-walks. The clean appearance is owing to a law obliging the inhabitants to whitewash their houses and walls once a year, and to the white contrasting with the red-tiled roofs. The houses are mostly one-story high, built round a court or square, from twenty to forty feet wide, round which the rooms are situated. The roof projects to form a kind of piazza or covered way. The gateway is usually large, and the rooms on each side of it are not connected with the rest of the building, but rented as shops. Opposite to the gateway is the center window, guarded by a light and ornamental iron frame, painted green or richly gilt. The court is usually paved with small pebbles from the bed of the Maypocho, arranged fancifully; in many cases, the courts are laid out in flower-plats, with roses and geraniums.

The River Maypocho runs through one portion of Santiago, and supplies it with water. In the center of the city is the great plaza, where the public buildings are situated. These are built of a coarse kind of porphyry from the mountains: the cathedral and palace each occupy one side; in the center is a fountain, with several small statues of Italian marble. All the public buildings are much out of repair, having been damaged by earthquakes.

The cathedral is a large edifice—its altar is decked with gold and silver. There are within it paintings and hangings, among which is a large number of trophies, taken in the wars. The niches are filled with wax figures of saints, *and there are also "the remains of two martyrs of the church, in a olerably good state of preservation."*

The palace, originally built for the viceroy, is now appropriated to the accommodation of the president and the public officers. On the side opposite to the palace is a colonnade, not yet finished, intended to occupy one whole side of the plaza. Under its portico are fancy and dry goods shops, and between the columns various trades, or lace and fringe makers' work. In the evening it is resorted to by females, with large flat baskets, vending shoes, fruit, and fancy articles; others are cooking cakes, and the whole portico is lighted up, and much resorted to.

The mint occupies a square; it has never been completed, and has suffered from earthquakes. The operation of coining is in the rudest form. Both rolling and cutting are done by mule power.

The public library contains several thousand volumes, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits, and many curious manuscripts relating to the Indians.

The markets are well supplied; there is one near the banks of the Maypocho which covers an area of four or five acres, and is surrounded by a low

building with a tile roof, supported by columns, under which meats of all kinds are sold. In the center are sold vegetables, fruits, flowers, poultry, and small wares; the market-women are seated under awnings, screens, and large umbrellas, to keep off the sun. The market is clean.

The average price of a horse is twelve dollars, but some that are well broken are valued high.

The climate of Chili is justly celebrated, that of Santiago is delightful; the temperature is usually between 60° and 75°. The country round is extremely arid, and were it not for its mountain streams, which afford the means of irrigation, all Chili would be a barren waste for two-thirds of the year. Rain falls only during the winter months, (June to September,) and after they have occurred the whole country is decked with flowers; the rains often last several days, are excessively heavy, and during their continuance the rivers become impassable torrents. At Santiago the climate is drier and colder, but snow rarely falls; on the ascent of the Cordilleras, the aridity increases with the cold; the snow was found much in the same state as at Terra del Fuego, lying in patches about the summits. Even the high peak of Tupongati was bare in places, and to judge from appearances, it seldom rains in the highest regions of the Cordilleras, to which cause may be imputed the absence of glaciers.

Art. II.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XXXIII.

THE CITY OF NEW YORK.—Part III.

In the statement following, is given the approximate measurement, in feet, of the several wards of the city, deducting public and other reserved grounds, below Fourteenth-street, which may be considered the limit of dense population—the number of square feet per head to the inhabitants, upon the census numbers of 1850—the side of the square of the same area—and the rate of population to the square mile in each ward, and in the city, aggregately:—

Wards.	Area. sq. feet.	Sq. feet. per head.	Side of square. Feet.	Pop. to square mile.
I.	6,800,000	344	18½	81,042
II.	2,900,000	436	21	63,941
III.	3,700,000	357	19	78,090
IV.	3,250,000	140	11¾	199,131
V.	6,050,000	266	16¼	104,806
VI.	3,500,000	141	11¾	197,719
VII.	8,900,000	272	16½	102,531
VIII.	7,800,000	225	15	123,904
IX.	12,700,000	312	17 3-5	89,354
X.	4,800,000	206	14½	135,332
XI.	8,575,000	196	14	142,237
XIII.	3,450,000	122	11	228,511
XIV.	4,650,000	184	13	151,513
XV.	10,350,000	426	21¼	61,137
XVII.	12,850,000	293	17	95,148
Total.	100,225,000	249	15 4-5	111,961

The density of the lower wards is really much greater than here appears, as a large part of their area is occupied by stores, warehouses, &c. Thus in the First Ward, it is probable that the dwelling houses do not occupy above one-half of the ward, including all the upper parts of store-buildings used as such.

Nearly the whole body of the population in this ward, is, in fact, compressed within about one-third of its area, and it would be nearer the actual case to state the square feet per head, within the districts occupied by dwellings, at 100, the side of the square being 10 feet, and the population, per square mile, 275,000.

The following is a similar statement for the city of Boston, embracing all that part of the city within the peninsula, or all the portion north of Beach and Boylestone streets, and comprised within the first nine wards, excluding the islands attached to Ward IV.:—

Wards.	Area. Square feet.	Square feet per head.	Population, 1850.	Population to square mile.
I	2,452,500	239	10,280	111,646
II	2,111,750	230	9,167	121,210
III	3,267,000	298	10,972	93,552
IV	4,861,250	533	5,371	52,305
V	1,989,250	200	10,002	139,392
VI	2,725,000	304	8,967	91,705
VII	2,588,750	431	6,002	64,688
VIII	2,111,750	208	10,166	134,030
IX	2,588,750	245	10,506	113,789
	22,696,000	279	81,433	99,923

The measurement of the ward we have calculated from an accurate map of the city, and although the result can be only an approximation, yet it is sufficiently precise for the purpose, as the aggregate obtained varies very slightly from the estimated area of this portion of the city, given by Dr. Shattuck. We may add, also, that the same circumstances exist in several of these wards, noticed in the case of the First and Second, and other lower wards in New York, a great part of them being occupied by stores and warehouses, and the population being thus crowded into much narrower limits than is apparent from the table.

In comparing the two cities, it will be seen that the densest ward in Boston (the Fifth) has 200 square feet to the inhabitant, or equal to 139,392 inhabitants to the square mile, while the densest of New York (the Thirteenth) has 122 square feet to the individual, equal to 228,511 inhabitants to the square mile. In the whole area of dense population, New York is also more compact than Boston; but it is probable that Boston has quite as dense or even denser localities. Dr. Shattuck mentions a section of Ward VIII., of Boston, which in 1845 contained one individual to every *seven square yards*, and an average of *thirty-seven persons to a house*. In New York, a portion of Ward I., and one or two other small localities, may equal this rate, or if they do not, will not fall greatly behind.

The comparison of these two cities with Philadelphia and London, is as follows:—

Cities.	Area. Sq. ml's.	Acres.	Sq. feet to person.	Population to square mile.
New York, 1850	3	381	249	111,961
Boston, 1850	.	521	279	99,923
Philadelphia, 1850	2	122½	503	55,405
London, 1700, within the walls	.	370	115	242,421
" 1700, without the walls	.	230	145	192,265
" 1700, within and without	.	600	123	227,654
" 1841, within the walls	.	370	295	94,503
" 1841, without the walls	.	230	138	202,018
" 1841, within and without	.	600	207	134,678

By which it will be seen that the American cities have less than one-half

the compactness of the ancient city of London, (the city proper,) and are still much below her density, greatly as it has decreased since the first period named, by the absorption of the territory within the city for business purposes.

The statement next given presents a view of New York, in its whole area, compared with a similar view of Boston, the city and county of Philadelphia, London, with its proper suburbs, other European cities, &c., &c.:—

Cities, &c.	Population.	Area. Sq. mil's.	Acres.	Pop. to sq. mile.
New York, 1850	515,545	22	...	23,567
Boston, 1850	138,788	3	420	37,703
Philadelphia, 1850	408,815	120	...	3,409
London, 1851	2,363,141	98	...	24,114
Dublin City, 1851	232,726	5	500	40,255
Cork City, 1851	80,720	4	128	17,019
Waterford City, 1851	23,316	1	29	20,715
Galway Town, 1851	17,275	...	628	17,605
Middlesex County, Eng., 1851	1,576,636	297	...	5,309
Lancashire County, Eng.	1,667,054	1,806	...	923
Ireland, 1851	6,515,794	32,513	...	217
Massachusetts, 1850	994,499	7,800	...	126
Middle States, 1850	2,467,915	111,796	...	59

PROPORTION OF HOUSES TO INHABITANTS.

The number of dwelling-houses in New York, with the average number of occupants to each, has been at different periods as follows:—

Year.	Dwellings.	Av. occupants.
1656	120	8 1-3
1756	2,000	5 1-5
1850	37,780	13 2-3

The number of houses in each ward, in 1850, and the average of families and persons to a house were:—

Wards.	Houses.	Families to a house.	Heads to a house.	Wards.	Houses.	Families to a house.	Heads to a house.
1	995	2 4-5	19 7-8	12	1,052	1 2-7	10
2	431	2	15 3-7	13	1,787	3 3-11	15 4-5
3	704	1 6-7	14 5-7	14	1,691	2 7-8	15
4	1,223	3 1-2	19	15	2,245	1 5 11	10
5	1,957	2 1-3	11 3-5	16	4,002	2 3-5	13 1-5
6	1,403	3 1-3	17 4-7	17	2,836	3	15 4-9
7	2,271	2 1-2	14 2-5	18	2,689	2	11 3-4
8	2,743	2 2-5	12 3-5	19	1,772	1 1-2	10 1-2
9	3,545	2	11 4-5				
10	1,993	2 1-2	11 7-10	Total		2 1-2	13 2-3
11	2,391	3 2-3	18 3-10				

In Boston there were, in 1742, 1,719 houses, with a population of 16,382, or 9½ individuals to a house; in 1810, there were 8½ persons to a house; in 1830, 9 to a house; in 1850, the statement for that city, and its several wards, is as follows:—

Wards.	Houses.	Families to a house.	Heads per house.	Wards.	Houses.	Families to a house.	Heads per house.
1	1,080	2.01	9.51	8	480	4.05	21.18
2	666	2.34	13.76	9	986	1.90	10.67
3	1,081	2.01	10.14	10	1,568	1.83	9.45
4	2,375	1.27	6.49	11	2,325	1.60	8.33
5	1,228	1.52	8.22	12	1,701	1.42	7.82
6	1,037	1.27	8.64				
7	647	1.24	9.27	Total	15,194	1.70	9.16

NUMBER OF OCCUPANTS PER HOUSE IN SEVERAL OTHER CITIES, STATES, AND COUNTRIES.

Place.	No. to a house.	Place.	No. to a house.
Philadelphia, 1792, (city proper.)	6 1-3	London, 1851	2 2-3
" 1850, "	7 1-2	Liverpool, 1841	7
Charleston, S. C., 1848	5 1-3	Edinburg, 1841	6
Savannah, Geo., 1848	7	Manchester, Eng., 1841	5 2-3
Massachusetts, (ex't Boston,) '40	7 1-3	England, 1851	5 1-2
Pennsylvania, 1815	8	Scotland, 1851	7 2-3
New York State, 1815	9	Ireland, 1851	6 1-5

The excess of occupants to each house in the case of New York city, is, however it may be in certain localities, less the effect of overcrowding the tenements than would be inferred from the statement. The houses in New York are *higher*, generally, than in perhaps any other city, and while with reference to territorial area, or availability of *ground-room* to the population, the fact is just what the figures indicate; yet by elevating a large portion through successive stages to a very considerable altitude, in the *upper strata*, although new evils arise, a great many of the worst ones, that would otherwise result, are avoided.

PROGRESS OF BUILDINGS.

The subjoined figures show the number of buildings erected in the city of New York, of all descriptions, in each year, from 1834 to 1850:—

Years.	Buildings.	Years.	Buildings.	Years.	Buildings.
1834	877	1840	850	1846	1,910
1835	1,259	1841	971	1847	1,846
1836	1,826	1842	912	1848	1,191
1837	840	1843	1,273	1849	1,495
1838	781	1844	1,210	1850	1,912
1839	1,838	1845	1,980		

MATERIAL OF THE POPULATION.

As has been often remarked, New York has, of all cities of the American Continent, the greatest diversity of population. Almost every nation of the earth, and race and sub-division of the general family, is represented in the motley assemblage. According to the census of of 1845, the leading components of the mass were of—

Persons born in the State of New York	194,916
" " New England	16,079
" " other parts of the United States	25,572
" " Mexico and South America	508
Persons born on this continent	237,075
Persons born in Great Britain and dependencies	96,581
" " Germany	24,416
" " France	3,710
" " other parts of Europe	3,277
Persons born in Europe	127,984

Of the foreign population, 60,946, or about one-half, were unnaturalized. There were of colored people, in 1850, 13,724; an increase of only 811, or 4½ per cent from 1845; and a decrease of 2,034, or 13 per cent from 1840.

FOREIGN IMMIGRATION.

The following table shows the number of passengers at New York, from foreign ports, betwen the years 1840 and 1851:—

1840.....	60,712	1844.....	60,597	1848.....	176,671
1841.....	55,885	1845.....	81,291	1849.....	220,742
1842.....	74,014	1846.....	108,264	1850.....	212,996
1843.....	45,961	1847.....	147,170	1851.....	289,601

The countries which furnished this emigration were:—

	1850.	1851.		1850.	1851.
Ireland	117,038	163,256	West Indies	565	575
Germany.....	45,537	69,883	Nova Scotia.....	181	81
England	28,166	25,553	Sardinia	182	98
Scotland	6,776	7,302	South America.....	122	121
Wales.....	1,537	2,189	Canada.....	82	50
France.....	3,467	6,064	China	37	4
Spain	270	278	Sicily.....	52	12
Switzerland	2,381	4,449	Mexico	63	42
Holland.....	1,183	1,798	Russia.....	43	23
Norway.....	3,156	2,112	East Indies.....	55	10
Sweden.....	1,200	769	Turkey	30	4
Denmark.....	1,091	229	Greece.....	31	1
Italy	488	618	Poland	203	422
Portugal.....	85	26			
Belgium	244	475	Total aliens....	212,996	289,601

MORTALITY—DURATION OF LIFE.

The number of deaths and the ratio to population in every fifth year, since 1805, have been as follows:—

Year.	Deaths.	Ratio.	Year.	Deaths.	Ratio.
1805.....	2,297	1 to 32.98	1830.....	5,198	1 to 38.97
1810.....	2,073	" 46.49	1835.....	6,608	" 40.87
1815.....	2,405	" 41.83	1840.....	7,868	" 39.74
1820.....	3,326	" 37.19	1845.....	9,886	" 37.55
1825.....	4,774	" 34.78	1850.....	16,978	" 30.37

In 1851, the number of deaths was 22,024, equivalent to about 1 in 25 of the population, allowing 30,000 for the increase of the population over the census of the previous year. This very large rate of mortality is not to be taken as an absolute indication of the health of the city; for although there has been a rapidly progressive increase of deaths for a few years past, it will be seen on referring to a longer period that there has been no steady progression upward of the rate of mortality in correspondence with the growth of the city; and that the recent fatality is owing mainly to causes, which, however effective in themselves, and however much strengthened of late, admit of remedy, and it is to be hoped will, by the adoption of a better sanitary system than has hitherto prevailed, be speedily obviated. The ratio of deaths in 1850 was but little in advance of that which prevailed so far back as the years 1805 and 1825.

The rates of deaths in several other cities and States were at different periods as follows:—

Boston, 1845.....	1 in 49	Washington, D. C., 1850.....	1 in 43½
1850.....	" 38	Glasgow, Scotland, 1836....	" 26
Lowell, 1845.....	" 69	Manchester, Eng., 1842.....	" 30
1850.....	" 65	Surrey, Eng., 1841.....	" 53
Fall River, Mass., 1850	" 66	Liverpool, 1841.....	" 29½
Providence, R. I., 1845.....	" 37	London, 1841.....	" 41
1850.....	" 47	England, 1841	" 46½
Cincinnati, 1840.....	" 35	Wisconsin, 1850	" 106
Baltimore, 1846–48.....	" 20½	Vermont, 1850.....	" 100
Chicago, 1849.....	" 15	Massachusetts, 1850	" 51
1850.....	" 42	Utah, 1850.....	" 47½
Louisville, 1840–43.....	" 17½	Louisiana, 1850	" 43

The average duration of life in New York, compared with that of several other cities, is as follows:—

	Years.		Years
New York, 1811–20	26.15	Philadelphia, 1821–30	25.53
1821–30	24.36	1831–40	22.64
1831–40	19.46	1845	21.35
1845–50	20.78	Charleston, 1822–30	30.59
1850	20.67	1831–40	31.05
Boston, 1811–20	27.75	1841–48	30.39
1821–30	25.88	Massachusetts, 1843–48	32.18
1831–40	22.72	London, 1841	27.00
1841–45	21.43	Liverpool, 1841	20.00
1850	21.06	England, 1841	28.46
Philadelphia, 1811–20	26.25	Ireland, 1841	28.00

The causes, which under equal circumstances of climate, locality, &c., would be expected to give new York a larger mortality and a lower period of life are so evident that we need not here particularize them. In the result, as above given, the position of New York is, all things fairly considered, quite as advantageous as the average of the places put in comparison.

PAUPERISM.

The Alms-House Department of New York supports about 6,000 paupers, and furnishes aid, yearly, to about 35,000 to 40,000 others, at an expense annually of about $400,000.

CRIME.

During the year 1851, there were received at the City Prison 16,522 persons, making, with 221 remaining January 1, 16,743. Of these, there were 12,955 discharged, 3,390 sent to the Penitentiary, and 192 to the State Prison, and 3 were executed. In the Courts of Oyer and Terminer, General and Special Sessions of the Peace, there were 2,494 convictions; of which, 8 were of murder; 8 of manslaughter; assault with intent to kill, 8; assault and battery, 703; riot, 6; forgery, 17; burglary, 47; keeping disorderly houses, 15; bigamy, 1; incest, 1; grand larceny, 105; petit larceny, 1,530. In 1836, the whole number of convictions was 854, or about 1 for every 315 inhabitants; in 1851, estimating the population at 550,000, the convictions were 1 to 225 inhabitants. In Boston the convictions were, in 1835, 290, or 1 in each 271 of the population; in 1840, 261, or 1 in every 358; in 1845, 436, or one in 262 of the population, were convicted in the courts of crime. In London, about 1838, the annual convictions were 3,300, or about 1 in 415 of the population.

EDUCATION.

The amount appropriated for schools in this city, for the last year, was $221,773 59. The whole number of pupils in the schools for the year ending February 5, 1851, was 107,363; average attendance, 40,055. The number of public schools, was 114; ward schools, 72; corporate schools, 21—total, 207. The average cost per scholar was about $6 87.

The number of adult people unable to read and write was, by the census of 1850, as follows:—

Ward.				Ward.			
1.....	939 or 1 in every		21	12.....	61 or 1 in every		181
2.....	296	"	22 1-2	13.....	806	"	35
3.....	323	"	32	14.....	1,876	"	18 1-3
4.....	1,905	"	12 1-5	15.....	744	"	30 1-3
5.....	553	"	41	16.....	1,094	"	48 1-3
6.....	3,372	"	7 1-3	17.....	711	"	61 1-2
7.....	1,307	"	25	18.....	1,127	"	28
8.....	1,122	"	31	19.....	1,748	"	10 1-2
9.....	690	"	59				
10.....	152	"	153 1-3	Whole city.	18,807	"	27 1-2
11	481	"	91				

The 12th Ward, it will be seen, is the best off in respect to education, and the 6th is in the worst state. Of the total number in the city unable to read and write, 16,449 are of foreign birth, and 2,358 only are natives. Of the latter, 1,667 are negroes. Of the whole number of white adults unable to read and write, 4,869 are males, and 12,271 females.

In Boston, the average expenditure for public schools is near $8 per head for all the children of 4 to 16 years of age, and about $12 for each scholar. In the State of Massachusetts, the expenditure per head for each child, annually, is about $3. The expenses of the public schools of Philadelphia, for the last year, are estimated at $435,938, or about $5 per head for the children of 5 to 15 years.

CHURCHES.

Protestant Episcopal.....	45	Dutch Reformed	19
Methodist	30	Lutheran.....	5
African.	4	Roman Catholic.....	21
Presbyterian.....	36	Jewish Synagogues.....	12
Associate Presbyterian.....	4	New Jerusalem.....	2
Associate Reformed Presbyterian..	2	Primitive Christians	4
Reformed Presbyterian.....	4	Universalist.....	4
Baptist	31	Friends	4
Congregational.....	10	Miscellaneous.....	9
Wesleyan Methodist.	1		
Methodist Protestant.....	2	Total.....	261
Unitarian	2		

This table gives about one church for every 2,100 of the population. In 1836, the number of churches was 150, or 1 to about 1,850 of the inhabitants. The average number which can be accommodated in these churches is probably about 800, or about 200,000 altogether. Religious provision is therefore made for less than half of the population.

In Philadelphia there are within the city proper 84 churches, with 83,171 seats, the population being, in 1850, 121,417; and in the city, and its principal suburbs, there were 247 churches, with 185,539 seats, to accomodate a population of above 400,000. In Boston, in 1845, there were 78 churches, and 21 halls used for religious purposes, having 84,174 seats for a population of 114,366, providing for about 74 out each 100. Baltimore, in 1850, contained 106 churches, or 1 for 1,783 inhabitants. Lowell, in 1845, had 33 churches, or one to 874 inhabitants.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

There are above 2,000 men attached to the Fire Department, and there were, last year, 34 fire-engines, 49 hose-carriages, 8 hook and ladder trucks, with 40 ladders, and 58,500 feet length of hose.

MILITIA.

The city of New York comprises the First Division of the New York State Militia, in which are enrolled about 45,000 men. What is called the volunteer, namely, the uniformed militia, numbers about 4,000 men.

CROTON AQUEDUCT.

The Croton Aqueduct is 40¼ miles in length, the greatest interior width is 7 feet 5 inches, and its greatest interior hight 8 feet 5½ inches, and it is capable of discharging 60,000,000 gallons of water daily—the minimum flow being 27,000,000 gallons daily. When first constructed, a journey was accomplished through its whole length, by several persons, on foot, and afterwards it was navigated through by four persons in a boat. The cost of construction was $9,000,000. The Cochituate Aqueduct, of Boston, is only about 20 miles in length, and its greatest capacity of delivery is 14,000,000 gallons daily, the average supply being about 10,000,000 gallons. The cost was $5,000,000.

POLICE.

The police department of New York comprises about 900 men, and its annual expense is about $500,000.

MARKETS.

There are fourteen principal markets in different parts of the city, besides any number of licensed stalls, green-grocers' shops, &c.

THE PRESS.

There are in New York 20 daily papers, with a circulation of above 200,000, and the yearly value of which must exceed half a million of dollars. In Boston, in 1845, there were 15 daily papers, with a circulation of 53,172, and a yearly value of $216,776. There were 350 daily papers in the United States in 1850, having a circulation of 750,000, so that New York furnishes nearly one-third of all the daily papers circulated within the Union. In a year, the circulation of the daily papers of New York numbers exclusive of extras, and all editions after the first, about 60,000,000 copies; while for the empire of Great Britain, the number of stamps issued for newspapers of all kinds, in 1849, was but 72,447,707. The total circulation of papers of all sorts, published in London, in 1850, was 21,269,840, only about one-third the circulation of the daily papers of New York.

NEW YORK STOCK AND EXCHANGE BOARD.

The objects of this association are, as its name implies, the buying and selling of stocks, specie, &c., no sales being made at the board for a less amount than $500. The fee of admission is $400, and the board is governed by a constitution and by-laws. Fictitious sales or contracts are forbidden under penalty of expulsion. The hour of meeting is at 10½ o'clock, A. M., daily, at their hall in the Merchants' Exchange, and again informally at 2½ o'clock, P. M.

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Was organized in 1768, for promoting the general commercial and navigating interests of the city. It received a charter from George III., in 1770, which was renewed and modified in 1784. Its meetings are

held on the first Tuesday in each month, and the general interests of Commerce, foreign and domestic, are the subjects of discussion. It has two principal committees, one called the "Committee of Arbitration," the other, the "Committee of Appeal." The business of the first is the adjustment of mercantile differences; and the other is to decide in cases where an appeal is made from the decision of the "Committee of Arbitration." An appeal can be made only when the amount at issue exceeds $100; and if the committee are unanimous in their decision, not unless it amounts to $500. Merchants, or those connected with Commerce, are alone allowed membership, but a limited privilege of arbitration is extended to those who are neither members nor eligible to membership.

Art. III.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS IN 1851–52.*

In the *Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review* for November, 1848, (vol. xix., pp. 503–518,) in our series of papers relating to the "Commercial Cities and Towns of the United States," we published a carefully prepared sketch of the commercial and industrial history of New Orleans, and from year to year, since the establishment of our Journal, we have embodied in its pages full statistics of the Trade and Commerce of that city, as furnished to our hands by the *New Orleans Price Current*, one of the best-conducted journals of its class in the United States; and in November, 1851, (vol. xxv., pp. 545–558,) we published the annual review of the *Price Current*, remarking, at the time, that as these reports embraced a comparative view of the progress of trade and Commerce, which imparted to them not only a present, but prospective, and even an historical value, we should continue their republication from year to year. The *Price Currents* of our commercial cities are more or less local in their character, and limited in their circulation. Our Journal, on the other hand, is national and even cosmopolitan in its objects, more convenient for preservation, and designed as a standard work of reference in all time.

The plan adopted by us in reference to New Orleans, and the principal commercial cities of the Union, we have reason to know, meets the approval of intelligent merchants throughout the country, and is, as we have before remarked, well calculated to give completeness and impart to our Magazine that nationality of character which it has been our aim from the start to maintain.

The editors of the *Price Current*, in presenting their annual statement, congratulate the community of New Orleans and country upon a season of unrivaled prosperity, and after a few pertinent preliminary observations, proceed to give the following statement of the Trade and Commerce of New Orleans for the twelve months ending August 31, 1852.

The value of products received from the interior since 1st September, 1851, is $108,051,708 against $106,924,083 last year. The value of the exports of American produce for the year ended 30th June last, according to the custom-

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* For full statistics of the Commerce, &c., of New Orleans for the year 1851-52, see "Commercial Statistics," in the present number of this Magazine.

house records, was $76,344,569 against $81,216,925 last year. Of this amount $48,076,197 was to foreign ports, and $28,268,327 coastwise. The value of foreign merchandise exported during the same period was only $44,780. These figures exhibit a decrease in the total exports, as compared with last year, of $5,273,526. In the exports to foreign countries the decrease is $6,312,986, but there is an increase coastwise of $1,039,460. There has been a material falling off in the operations of the Branch Mint, the total deposits of gold and silver, for the year ended on the 31st July, 1852, being $6,103,650 against $9,107,722 last year. Of the gold, $5,821,695 was from California, against $8,152,878 from the same source last year. The coinage in the same period has been 675,500 pieces gold, value $6,370,000, and 1,488,000 pieces silver, value $235,600. Total 2,163,500 pieces, value $6,600,000. Last year the total coinage was $10,044,500.

COTTON. This article has long been, and is likely long to be, the leading staple of our Commerce; and that its importance is not waning is evinced by the fact that the receipts of the past year, at our own port alone, reach nearly a million-and-a-half of bales; or an excess over any previous year of nearly two hundred and fifty thousand bales. Yet with this large increase we have the pleasure of saying that there probably has never been, in the whole history of the cotton trade, a season more satisfactory in its general course and results than the one just closed. We propose to review, as briefly as possible, the leading features of the market's progress.

The first bale of the new crop was received here on the 25th July, which was seventeen days earlier than the first receipt of the previous year, and the earliest arrival since 1844. The total of new crop received up to 1st September was 3,155 bales, against 67 bales the year previous, and 477 bales in 1849. The early sales of the new crop were at 8 a 8¼ cents for middling, and 8¼ a 9 cents for good middling to middling fair, which was a higher opening of the market than could have reasonably been anticipated, as the previous season had closed most disastrously, and the impression was general that the crop would be likely to be a very full, if not a very large one. In the early part of September, though, a still higher range was attained, the quotations having reached 9 a 9¼ cents for middling to good middling. From this point, however, the market began to yield under the pressure of increasing supplies, but the decline was very gradual, the market touching 6¼ a 7 cents for middling about the middle of October. For a strict classification of middling this was the lowest point of the season, and the market remained steady up to the first week in November, when increased demand, especially for middling to good middling descriptions, and their comparative scarcity, caused a slight upward movement in prices, which continued to maintain a remarkable degree of steadiness up to near the close of the season. The following tables, which we have prepared from our records, will illustrate more fully the movement in our leading staple.

A reference to these tables will show a steadiness and regularity in prices during the leading business months which has no parallel in any previous year; for it will be seen that from October to May, within which period nearly the whole of our supply was disposed of, the extreme fluctuation for the whole time was but *half a cent per pound.* The whole season gives an average of 8 cents per pound, against 11 cents last year. The average weight per bale we have ascertained to be 438 pounds, which would give an aggregate weight for the portion of the crop received at this port of 625,982,154 pounds.

TABLE SHOWING THE QUOTATIONS FOR LOW MIDDLING TO GOOD MIDDLING COTTON ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH WITH THE RATES OF FREIGHT TO LIVERPOOL, AND STERLING BILLS, AT SAME DATE.

	Low middling to good middling.		Sterling. per cent prem.		Freights, per pound.	
September	7¼ a	8¼	10 a	11	⅜ a	....
October	7¼	8¼	10	11	7-16	....
November	6¼	7¼	6¼	8¼	½	....

	Low middling to good middling.		Sterling, per cent prem.		Freights, per pound.	
December	6¾	7⅞	9	10½	⅜	7-16
January	6¾	7½	8¾	9¾	13-32	7-16
February	7	7⅞	8½	9	⅜	13-32
March	7½	8⅛	8¾	9½	5-16	⅜
April	7	7⅞	8¾	9½	9-16	....
May	7½	8½	8	8¾	9-16	....
June	8½	10	9	10	½	5-16
July	8½	11	9¾	10½	5-16	⅜
August	8½	11	9¾	10½	5-16	⅜

TABLE SHOWING THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST POINT IN EACH MONTH FOR LOW MIDDLING TO MIDDLING COTTON.

	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
September	8¼ a 9	7⅞ a 8¼	March	7⅞ 8	7 7⅛
October	7¾ 8	6½ 7	April	7½ 7¾	6½ 7⅜
November	7½ 7⅝	6⅜ 7	May	8⅜ 9½	7½ 8
December	7⅛ 7½	6¾ 7⅛	June	8⅜ 9¼	8¼ 9
January	7⅛ 7⅜	6¾ 7⅛	July	8½ 9½	8½ 9½
February	7¾ 7⅞	7 7½	August	8¾ 9⅜	8½ 9½

TABLE SHOWING THE PRODUCT OF LOW MIDDLING TO GOOD MIDDLING COTTON, TAKING THE AVERAGE OF EACH ENTIRE YEAR FOR SEVEN YEARS, WITH THE RECEIPTS AT NEW ORLEANS, AND THE TOTAL CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Total crop. Bales.	Receipts at New Orleans. Bales.	Average price. Cents per lb.
1845–6	2,100,537	1,041,393	6⅞
1846–7	1,778,651	707,324	10
1847–8	2,347,634	1,188,733	6¼
1848–9	2,728,596	1,100,636	6¼
1849–50	2,096,706	797,387	11
1850–1	2,355,257	995,036	11
1851–2, (estimated)	3,000,000	1,429,183	8

The total receipts at New Orleans since 1st September last, from all sources, are 1,429,183 bales. This amount includes 34,959 bales from Mobile and Florida, and from Texas by sea; and this being deducted, our receipts proper, including 21,760 bales received direct from Montgomery, etc., are shown to be 1,394,224 bales, being an increase of 444,004 bales over last year, and of 205,491 bales over any previous year. The total exports since 1st September are 1,435,815 bales, of which 772,242 bales were shipped to Great Britain, 196,254 to France, 210,607 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, etc., and 256,712 to United States ports.

On a comparison of the exports with those of last year, there would appear to be an increase of 189,869 bales to Great Britain, 65,892 to France, 78,701 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, etc., and of 103,895 bales to United States ports. The total receipts at all the Atlantic and Gulf ports, up to the latest dates received, are 3,021,519 bales, but the actual crop, when made up by the New York *Shipping List*, will fall somewhat short of this amount, as it includes some 25,000 bales of last year's stock, which was on hand at Augusta and Hamburg, and was counted in the last crop.

Thus, the largest crop ever produced in the United States has been disposed of, and with results more generally satisfactory than we remember to have witnessed in any previous year. The circumstances which have tended to these results present some remarkable peculiarities, and we propose to touch briefly upon a few of the most prominent, among which we may mention the policy of the factors generally of meeting the market freely, and thus guarding against any unwieldy accumulation of stock, which would tend to break down the market. In this course they have been aided by circumstances which to many were a momentary evil of magnitude, though they contributed favorably in the gene-

ral result. We allude to the remarkable drought, which, while constituting a season of the most favorable character for picking, at the same time kept nearly all the tributary streams too low for the purposes of navigation; and thus the great bulk of the supplies which come from the banks of the main river had been received and disposed of before the tributaries were in a condition to contribute to the stock. We would also refer to the great abundance and cheapness of money in Europe, which brought speculators into competition with spinners, and to the remarkable increase in the consumption. This is most prominently shown by the half-yearly returns from Great Britain, by which it appears that the quantity taken for consumption, for the six months ended on the 1st July, was 1,031,764 bales, against 776,120 bales for the corresponding six months of the previous year. This made a weekly average of 39,683 bales, or an increase of about 5,000 bales per week over any previous period. Besides this, there is an increase in our exports to foreign countries, other than Great Britain, of 210,000 bales, while the quantity taken for home consumption probably exceeds that of last year by about 200,000 bales.

We append a table which exhibits the import, delivery, stock, etc., in the whole of Great Britain, for the first six months of the current year, ended on the 30th June last, and a comparison of the same period in 1851:—

		1852.		1851.
Stock, 1st January.....bales		494,600		521,120
Import, six months.....		1,401,363		1,156,500
		1,895,963		1,677,620
Exports, six months.....	147,000		95,300	
Consumption.....	1,031,763		776,120	
		1,178,763		871,420
Stock, 30th June.....		717,200		806,200
Weekly average taken for consumption.....		39,683		29,851
Taken on speculation.....		372,410		114,210

As to the quality of the last crop, it may be said to have been remarkable for its medium average, as the proportion of *very inferior* and *stained* cottons was small compared with the previous year, while the grades denominated *fine* and *choice* have been in unusually limited supply. Indeed, the well known *fancy crops*, which have always brought extra prices, scarcely approached the standard of former seasons. Besides this, the crop, as a whole, was deficient in staple, and we often, in our market reports, found it necessary to advert to this fact, in explanation of the wide range of prices for the same classifications. Nevertheless, it has found a ready market, and the season of the largest crop ever known closes upon lighter stocks, both in Europe and in this country, than were shown to be on hand at the same period last year.

The probable extent of the coming crop, which is a matter of absorbing interest to all parties engaged in the cotton trade, cannot be determined, with any degree of certainty, until after the lapse of several months. Its present prospects, however, we conceive to be a legitimate subject of remark, and these, we are gratified to observe, are of a decidedly favorable character. It is true the crop is generally represented to be somewhat later than last year, particularly on the bottom lands, and this may possibly prove a material disadvantage; but should no serious casualty ensue, and the picking season prove a long and favorable one, it is conceded that the yield must be very ample.

With respect to the market prospects for the coming crop, we think they may be said to be decidedly encouraging; for the experience of the past season would seem to give assurance of a ready demand for even a large crop, and at prices which will be likely to afford a fair return to the producer. As has already been shown, moderate prices, abundant pecuniary means, and other favorable circumstances, have greatly stimulated consumption within the past year, and there is

nothing now apparent to discourage the hope that, with the same wise policy of promptly meeting an active demand, a crop even larger than the last may be disposed of, with equally satisfactory results.

The first bale of the new crop reached here on the 2d August, being eight days later than the first arrival last year, and there have been received up to this date, 5,077 bales, against 3,155 bales last year. As usual, the first few bales brought fancy prices, but the market rapidly ran down to a more appropriate basis, and the closing quotations are as follows, embracing both old and new crop, the grades below middling belonging exclusively to the former:—

Ordinary to good ordinary	8 a 8¼
Low middling	8¼ 8½
Middling	9½ 9¾
Good middling	10 10¼
Middling fair	10¼ 10⅝
Fair	10⅝ 11
Good fair	11¼ 11½

The total sales of new crop up to this date amount to about 2,500 bales, the greater part classing good middling to middling fair, though there have been some lots of middling received, and also a few parcels of good and fine; thus presenting a considerably higher average of quality than the early receipts of last year. The season closes with a stock on hand, including all on shipboard, of 9,758 bales, of which about 3,500 bales are on sale.

The following paragraph made a part of our last year's annual report, and as the evil therein discussed has continued to be a source of much annoyance and loss during the past season, we republish it by request of both factors and purchasers.

Mixed Cotton.—We have, on former occasions, called the attention of planters to the existence of an evil which loudly calls for remedy. We refer to the culpable negligence of many whose duty it is to attend to the packing of cotton, as shown by the frequent discovery of mixed bales, viz.: bales that are found to contain two, three, or more qualities and colors. This negligence often leads to vexatious reclamations, and sometimes to expensive lawsuits, as it generally happens that the discovery is not made until the cotton has reached the hands of the manufacturer, at a distant market. Then, if any portion of the bale is found to be inferior in quality to the sample by which it was purchased, the whole bale is reduced to the value of the lowest grade found, and the difference reclaimed. Nor is this all, for reclamations are sometimes insisted on, even when the purchase has been made by a sample of the lowest grade, on the ground that mixed bales are unmerchantable. Thus the planter not only loses the difference in price between the lower and higher qualities, which careless packing has mingled in the same bale, but is called upon to pay that difference again. And besides all this, when the irregular packing is once discovered, as it necessarily must be somewhere and at some time, it throws discredit upon the planter's crop generally, and thus operates to his disadvantage. It sometimes happens that the discovery is made here, before sale, by drawing samples from different parts of a bale. When this is the case, the factor can seldom obtain more than the market value of the lowest sample. The evil which we have here depicted, and which is not only attended with direct loss to the planter, but is also productive of many vexatious controversies, is venal in its character, and only reprehensible for the confusion it introduces into a most important branch of trade, and one that can only be conducted with facility and economy upon the basis of good faith in the honesty and integrity of the planter. These virtues being accorded to him, he owes it to himself, to his factor, and to his purchaser, to exercise more care and vigilance over those who have his interest in charge.

The following tables, which have explanatory captions, we have compiled from our records, under the impression that they would probably be found interesting to parties engaged in the cotton trade:—

Date of receipt of first bale.	Receipts of new crop to 1st Sept.		Total receipts at New Orleans.	Total crop of U. States.
1842, July 25	1,734	1842–3	1,075,394	2,378,875
1843, August 17	292	1843–4	850,342	2,030,409
1844, July 23	5,720	1844–5	954,285	2,394,503
1845, July 30	6,846	1845–6	1,041,393	2,100,537
1846, August 7	140	1846–7	707,324	1,778,651
1847, August 9	1,089	1847–8	1,188,783	2,347,634
1848, August 5	2,864	1848–9	1,090,797	2,728,596
1849, August 7	477	1849–50	797,387	2,096,706
1850, August 11	67	1850–1	950,220	2,355,257
1851, July 25	8,155	1851–2	1,429,183	*3,000,000

Season.	Receipts at New Orleans.	Av. price per bale.	Total value.
1841–2	740,165	$33 00	$24,425,115
1842–3	1,089,642	27 00	29,420,334
1843–4	910,854	32 00	29,147,328
1844–5	979,238	24 00	23,501,712
1845–6	1,053,633	32 00	33,716,256
1846–7	740,669	44 00	32,589,436
1847–8	1,213,805	29 00	35,200,345
1848–9	1,142,382	27 00	30,844,314
1849–50	837,723	50 00	41,886,150
1850–1	995,036	49 00	48,756,764
1851–2	1,429,183	34 00	48,592,222
Total, ten years	11,132,320		$378,079,976

It will be seen by the above table that the cotton alone sold in this market within the past ten years has yielded a gross product of $378,079,976.

Sugar. The crop of 1851 proved, according to the very valuable statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, to be 236,547 hhds., estimated at 257,138,000 lbs. Of this quantity there were 203,922 hhds. brown sugar made by the old process, and 32,625 hhds. refined, clarified, etc., including cistern bottoms. This was the produce of 1,474 plantations, of which 914 are worked by steam, and 560 by horse power, and the result shows only a moderate yield, as the cane generally was not well matured, besides which the loss by crevasses is estimated to have have been about 10,000 hhds. The crop also presented a low average in quality, as besides the immature condition of the cane, it was somewhat injured by frost, and we noticed several sales on the levee as low as 1½, 1¾, and 2 cents per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and lowest points in each month for fair sugar on the levee, will indicate the general course of the market:—

	Cents per pound. Highest.	Lowest.		Cents per pound. Highest.	Lowest.
September	6¼ a 6½	5¾ a 6¼	March	4 a 4½	3¾ a 4¼
October	5¾ 6¼	4¾ 5	April	4¼ 4¾	3¾ 4¾
November	4¼ 5¼	4¼ 4¾	May	5 5¼	4¼ 4¾
December	4 4¼	3¾ 4	June	5 5¼	5 5¼
January	3¾ 4¾	3¼ 4	July	5 5¼	5 5¼
February	3¾ 4¼	3¼ 4	August	5¼ 5¾	5 5¼

These figures present a considerably lower average than was obtained for the crop of last year, the increase in quantity and the deficiency in quality having both tended to this result. The reported sales on plantation have been at the following rates, for crops—3½, 3¾, 3¾, 3¼, 4, 4¼, 5¼, 4¼, 4¾, and 5 cents per lb., the lowest being in December, for a mixed crop, and the highest in April, for a prime one. The prevailing rates of the season have been 4 a 4½ cents per lb. for prime crops.

* Estimated.

The estimated stock on hand at the close of last season was 2,200 hhds., and this amount added to the crop of 236,547 hhds., would make a supply of 238,747 hhds. The distribution of this supply, as nearly as can be ascertained, has been as follows:—

Shipments out of the State	hhds.	53,000
Consumption of the city and neighborhood		18,000
Taken for refining in the city and State, including cistern bottoms		15,000
Stock now on hand in the State, estimated		3,000
Leaving as the quantity taken for the West		149,547

The quantity shipped to Atlantic ports is 42,000 hhds., against 45,000 hhds. last year, and 90,000 the year previous.

Besides the Louisiana crop there have been imported into the port of New Orleans from Cuba 1,781 hhds., 25,673 boxes, from Brazil 1,591 cases and boxes, 80 barrels, and 7,689 bags, and from Manilla 14,224 bags. The whole of the imports from Brazil and Manilla, and a great portion of those from Cuba, were for a St. Louis refinery. The crop of Texas last year, we have ascertained from good authority, was not far from 5,000 hhds., and there were about 2,000 hhds. produced in Florida, the greater part of which came to this market.

With respect to the growing crop, we have to remark that the accounts from the interior generally concur in representing the prospects of the "plant cane" as very flattering, and in some sections the "rattoons" are said to give good promise, though as a general thing the latter are said to be, to a great extent, a failure, owing to the remarkably severe frosts of the winter. What the extent of the crop may be, however, can hardly be conjectured for some months to come, as many contingencies may arise, to its advantage or disadvantage. The annexed table gives the crop of each year for the last twenty-two years, and a reference to it will show great fluctuations in the product.

	Hhds.		Hhds.
1851	236,547	1840	87,000
1850	211,203	1839	115,000
1849	247,923	1838	70,000
1848	220,000	1837	65,000
1847	240,000	1836	70,000
1846	140,000	1835	80,000
1845	186,650	1834	100,000
1844	200,000	1833	75,000
1843	100,000	1832	70,000
1842	140,000	1829	48,000
1841	90,000	1828	88,000

The crop of Texas is said to give highly favorable promise, and the yield is expected to be more than double that of last year.

In an elaborate statement made up at New-York, the consumption of the United States, for the year 1851, is put down at 321,736 tons. This is exclusive of about 40,000 lbs. of maple sugar, and of a large quantity of sugar made of foreign molasses which we have no data for estimating.

Molasses. The product of molasses from the last cane crop, was, according to the statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, unusually large, in proportion to the yield of sugar; it being estimated at seventy gallons per 1,000 lbs., against fifty gallons the season previous. Thus the whole product is set down at 18,300,000 gallons against 10,500,000 gallons the season previous. The increased yield is attributed to the immature condition of the cane, the ripening of which was retarded by late rains. Notwithstanding this very material addition to the supply, however, prices generally have been very well maintained, as will be seen on reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest points in each month for sales on the levee in barrels.

	Cents per gallon. Highest.		Lowest.			Cents per gallon. Highest.		Lowest.	
September.....	25	a 30	23	a 30	March.....	15	26	14	25
October.....	23	30	20	28	April.....	18	27	15	26
November	26	27	22½	28½	May.....	24	28½	20	28
December.....	22½	24½	17	21	June	23	28	20	28
January	17	21	15	20½	July.....	18	28	15	28
February	20	25	15	21	August	18	28	18	28

The sales on plantation generally, ranged from 19 a 20 cents per gallon in the cisterns, though the latter was the prevailing rate for prime crops, most of which were taken for western account by prior contract. There have again been importations from Cuba for refining purposes, and up to this date the quantity reaches about 800,000 gallons, against 1,200,000 gallons to the same date last year. Of our own crop of 18,300,000 gallons, there have been shipped to Atlantic ports 2,700,000 gallons, against 2,000,000 gallons last year; leaving 15,600,000 gallons as the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South, which would indicate a remarkable increase over any previous year.

TOBACCO. At the commencement of the commercial year which has just closed, the stock of tobacco in this port (including all on shipboard not cleared) was 23,871 hhds., of which about 10,000 hhds. were in the hands of factors, the remainder being composed of strips and lugs for forwarding, and of parcels which had changed hands, and were awaiting opportunity for shipment.

The quotations given in our last annual statement, were:—

For Frosted.....cents per lb.	2½	a 3
Lugs, factory.....	none.	
Planters' do.....	3½	a 5
Leaf, inferior to common.....	5½	6
Fair to fine.....	6½	7
Choice and selections.....	7½	9

From the 1st September to the close of December, the demand was moderately fair; the arrivals during that time being about 5,000 hhds., while the sales exceeded 10,000 hhds. In prices there was a downward tendency from the middle of October, and on the 31st December our quotations were:—

For Frosted.....cents per lb.	2	a 2½
Lugs, factory.....	none.	
Planters' do.....	3	a 4
Leaf, inferior to common.....	4½	5
Fair to fine.....	5½	6
Choice and selections.....	6½	7

The first hogshead of the *new crop* reached here on the 18th October, and in January some few parcels of new came to market, and found buyers at rates ¼ to ½ cent below the closing figures of Dec., but it was not until the middle of March that any considerable arrivals took place. From that time until the end of April the receipts were upon a pretty liberal scale, and the demand at the same time was fair, and was freely met by factors generally. In this period buyers gradually obtained some further advantage in prices, and on the 1st May we quoted:—

For Lugs, factory.....cents per lb.	2	a 2½
Planters' do.....	3	3½
Leaf, inferior to common.....	3¾	4½
Fair to fine.....	4½	5
Choice and selections.....	5½	6

Early in May a number of buyers who had previously held aloof, entered the market, and an active demand sprang up which continued unabated for some sixty days, the sales in that time reaching nearly 30,000 hhds. The consequences of these exceedingly heavy transactions were, that the stock on the market (notwithstanding the unusual extent of the receipts) was reduced to a very moderate

quantity, and that prices gradually improved, until at the commencement of July our figures were advanced to the following range:—

For Lugs, factory.....cents per lb.	2½ a	3½
Planters'.....	3½	4
Leaf, inferior to common.....	4½	4¾
Fair to fine.....	5	5¼
Choice and selections.....	6	7

At about these rates some 6,000 hhds. changed hands during July, the demand being fair, though not animated, and the stock on sale being too limited to admit of any very extensive operations. During the past month the inquiry has been more brisk, and the sales reported embrace some 6,500 hhds., including some parcels which had previously changed hands, and were resold. Under the influence of this improved demand, prices have again taken a start upwards within the past three weeks, and we now quote, for—

Lugs, factory.....cents per lb.	3 a	3¼
Planters, ditto.....	3¼	4¼
Leaf, inferior to common.....	4¾	5¼
Fair to fine.....	5¼	6
Choice and selections.....	6¼	7¼

We close our tables with a stock in port of 18,831 hhds., though the quantity immediately on sale is estimated not to exceed 4,000 hhds. It may be proper to remark, however, that in addition to this amount there are probably 6,000 to 8,000 hhds. held in second hand, which may, in certain contingencies, be again placed upon the market. The total receipts at this port since 1st September, as shown by our tables, are 89,675 hhds., which amount includes 11,740 hhds. strips and 2,118 hhds. stems. The quantity inspected since 1st September is 64,645 hhds., of which 5,615 hhds. were Mason County.

Early in the season it was very generally known that the crop would certainly be a large one, and in view of the experience of previous years as to the effect of a heavy accumulation of stock upon our market, a majority, both of shippers in the country and of factors here, were in favor of speedy sales. This course has been generally pursued, and its advantages have been fully made manifest. The extent of our receipts (which would have been several thousand hogsheads greater but for the low stage of water in the rivers above for several weeks past) shows that the estimates of the crop were about correct. Its quality, however, was probably over-estimated, as the reports received from the interior last fall led to the expectation of something unusually fine, whereas the receipts from most sections have been decidedly below the average quality of former years. And here we take the liberty again to call the attention of planters to the necessity, if they would protect their own interest, and the interest of the trade generally, of bestowing more care upon the *handling*, *sorting*, and *prizing* of their crops. Their negligence in these particulars has been a matter of serious complaint for some years past.

With regard to the growing crop, we have briefly to remark, that the accounts received thus far have been of a decidedly discouraging character. Complaints of scarcity of plants, of want of proper seasons for planting, and of long continued drought since the planting was made, have been very general, and we hear of no section of the tobacco-growing region (unless it may be Missouri) in which anything like an average crop is expected. It is quite too early, however, to determine what the extent of the crop is likely to be, and at a later period we may take occasion again to advert to its prospects.

Western Produce.—In this department of our trade there is embraced a vast variety of products, which contribute largely to the value of our Commerce with the interior, but our limited space will only permit us to review briefly the course of the market in a few of the most prominent articles. There has been some increase in the supply of breadstuffs, as compared with the last year, and the average of prices has been lower. The receipts of flour are 927,212 bbls.,

against 941,106 last year, and of Indian corn they are equal to 3,750,000 bushels, against 3,300,000 bushels last year. Of wheat the supply has been light, and the receipts, which have been mostly to go forward to Alabama, Georgia, etc., have only reached 130,000 bushels, against 180,000 bushels last year. The few sales that have taken place have been at the extreme range of 65 a 85 cents, though mostly at about 70 cents per bushel. Of corn meal there has been received only 2,514 barrels, against 3,662 barrels last year. The total exports of flour, since 1st September, amount to 544,711 barrels, against 583,418 barrels to same date last year. Of this quantity, 138,569 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 70,445 to West Indies, etc., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian corn the total exports have been equal to 2,182,000 bushels, against 1,300,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity 382,000 bushels were shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 122,000 to the West Indies, etc., and the remainder to coastwise ports. The following tables will indicate the course of prices for flour and corn, as they present the highest and lowest points of the market in each month, the range being according to quality.

PRICES OF FLOUR. PRICES OF CORN IN SACKS.

	Per barrel. Highest.	Lowest.	Cents per bushels. Highest.	Lowest.
September	$3 50 a 5 00	$3 37½ a 4 75	85 a 56	32 a 55
October	3 75 5 00	3 40 4 50	40 58	33 42
November	3 55 4 75	3 40 4 50	48 52	33 42
December	3 90 4 75	3 55 4 37½	50 56	41 46
January	4 00 5 50	3 60 5 37½	54 57	44 47
February	4 25 5 12½	4 00 4 50	51 54	46 50
March	4 25 4 50	3 75 4 25	50 54	42 46
April	3 75 4 12½	3 80 3 90	48 50	42 46
May	3 60 3 80	3 25 3 75	47 53	40 47
June	3 80 4 37½	3 45 4 12½	48 53	45 52
July	3 75 4 25	3 50 3 87½	50 62	48 52
August	3 75 5 00	3 50 3 87½	52 60	48 51

The annexed table shows the exports of breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since 1st September, compared with the same period last year:—

	1851–52.	1850–51.
Flour ..... barrels	5,359,882	1,879,643
Corn meal	1,750	5,553
Wheat ..... bushels	1,520,307	1,286,630
Corn	1,547,383	2,197,253

With respect to the supply of breadstuffs for the coming year, it is likely to be most ample; for it is understood that the yield throughout the country has been more generally abundant than in any previous year, at least for a long period. Even in the Southern States, where the grain crops have been almost a total failure for two years in succession, the harvest is ample, and large sections of country, which have depended upon the West for supplies, are likely to have a surplus to send to market. The crops of Europe, also, are generally represented as giving favorable promise, and the probabilities would seem to indicate a lower range of prices than the American farmer has realized for some years past.

The article of pork has presented unusual interest the past season. It was declared that there was a further deficiency in the supply of hogs, as compared with the previous year, while it was evident that the consumption was rapidly on the increase, as the increase of population was large and constant, besides which the failure of the corn crops at the South had involved at the same time the failure of the usual home supply of pork, and on these considerations the market for hogs opened in the West at what appeared, to some at least, to be high prices. The sequel, however, has sustained the views of the purchasers, though we doubt whether any one anticipated so high a range of prices as the market has at-

tained within the past two months, a range that has scarcely been approached since 1838. In beef there has been some increase of supply, but prices, nevertheless, have ranged considerably higher than last year. The following tables show the highest and lowest points of the market, in each month:—

PRICES OF PORK.

	MESS.				PRIME.			
	Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.	
Septemper. per bbl.	$16 50 a 17 00		$16 00 a 16 50		$15 00 a 16 00		$15 00 a 15 50	
October	15 25	16 00	14 00	14 50	14 50	.....	13 00	.....
November	14 75	15 00	13 50	14 25	13 50	.....	13 00	.....
December	14 50	15 00	12 50	13 50	12 00	12 75	10 75	11 50
January	15 00	15 50	12 75	13 75	13 50	.....	12 00	12 75
February	15 50	15 75	14 87½	15 25	13 50	.....	13 25	.....
March	16 50	17 00	15 00	15 50	14 00	.....	13 25	.....
April	17 75	18 00	16 50	16 75	15 00	.....	13 50	13 75
May	17 25	17 62½	16 75	17 00	15 00	15 50	14 50	.....
June	20 00	21 00	17 00	17 50	18 50	.....	15 00	15 50
July	20 00	21 00	19 75	20 50	18 00	.....	18 00	.....
August	21 50	22 50	21 00	22 00	18 25	.....	18 25	.....

PRICES OF BEEF.

	MESS.				PRIME.			
	Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.	
September. per bbl.	$14 50 a 15 00		$14 50 a 15 00		$11 50 a 12 50		$10 50 a 11 00	
October	14 50	15 00	14 00	15 00	11 50	12 50	11 50	12 50
November	14 50	15 00	14 00	14 50	11 00	12 00	11 00	12 00
December	12 00	13 00	11 00	12 00	9 50	10 00	7 00	7 75
January	11 00	12 00	11 00	11 50	7 50	8 00	7 50	7 75
February	11 00	12 00	11 00	12 00	7 50	8 00	7 60	7 75
March	13 00	13 50	12 00	.....	9 00	9 25	7 60	8 00
April	13 00	13 50	13 00	13 50	9 50	9 75	9 00	9 25
May	13 25	14 00	13 00	13 50	10 00	11 00	9 50	9 75
June	14 00	14 50	13 25	14 00	13 00	13 75	10 00	11 00
July	14 50	15 00	14 00	14 50	13 00	13 75	13 00	13 50
August	14 50	15 00	14 50	15 00	13 00	13 50	13 00	13 50

The receipts of lard have rather exceeded those of last year, but the average of prices has been about the same. The total exports since 1st September, [all packages being reduced to kegs] are equal to 792,543 kegs, against 738,956 kegs last year. Of this quantity 222,224 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 188,353 kegs last year, Great Britain taking 61,923 kegs, against 41,663 last year. The course of the market will be observed by reference to the annexed table, which shows the highest and lowest points in each month, the lowest figures being for inferior, in barrels, and the highest for prime, in kegs:—

PRICES OF LARD.

	Cents per pound.					Cents per pound.			
	Highest.		Lowest.			Highest.		Lowest.	
September	8½ a 12½.		8½ a 12		March	7 a 9½		6 a 9½	
October	8½	12	8	10½	April	7	11	6½	9½
November	8	10½	6½	9	May	6½	11	6½	11
December	6½	8½	6½	8	June	8	10½	7	10½
January	6½	9½	5	8½	July	8	11½	8	8½
February	6	9½	5	9½	August	10	13	10	12

LEAD.—The discovery of gold in California has greatly interfered with the production of this article, and our receipts the past year have fallen to 267,564 pigs, which is the lowest amount since 1837. Our largest receipts were 785,000 pigs in 1846–47. The great bulk of the receipts has been forwarded to Northern cities, the sales in this market scarcely reaching 20,000 pigs for the entire season. The extreme range of prices has been $3 75 per 100 lbs. in October, and $4 70

in June, when it was shipped freight free. The total exports since 1st September are 256,939 pigs, against 320,608 pigs last year.

HEMP.—There has been a further reduction in the supply of this article, the receipts since 1st September being 17,149 bales, against 25,116 bales last year. As in the case of lead, nearly all that is received is sent forward, only occasional parcels being offered for sale in this market, and those generally of an inferior quality. Under these circumstances very few sales have taken place here during the past season, and those mostly of limited parcels, at an extreme range of $85 a $95 per ton for dew-rotted. The exports since 1st September are 15,728 bales, all to Northern ports.

COFFEE.—This article has rapidly risen in importance in our market, and may now be said to take the lead among our foreign imports. The first direct cargo from Rio was in 1835, and up to 1840 the imports only amounted to 44,000 bags, while in the same year we received from Cuba, etc., 91,000 bags. The following table, which shows the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro, in each year for ten years, will exhibit the rapid increase in this branch of our foreign trade, and will also establish the interesting fact that this is now the largest market in the world (out of Brazil) for Rio coffee:—

IMPORT AT NEW ORLEANS.

	Bags.		Bags.
1842	126,210	1848	239,371
1843	85,438	1849	299,129
1844	161,082	1850	225,013
1845	167,669	1851	274,690
1846	215,031	1852	353,616
1847	205,111		

The market during the past season has been characterized by more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for some years previous, but the increased supply has reduced the average of prices, which have fluctuated between 7 cents in December and January, and 9¼ cents in April, as the highest and lowest points. The following table, which we take from the annual circular of Mr. H. T. Lonsdale, coffee broker, shows the monthly sales and average prices for the year ended July 1st, 1852. By this it will be seen that the average price of the season, for Rio Coffee, has been 8 60-100 cents per lb., while the year previous it was 10 18-100 cents:—

	Bags.	Price.
1851—July	20,613	8 65-100
August	6,931	8 94-100
September	10,973	8 29-100
October	25,992	8 89-100
November	47,904	8 24-100
December	20,473	8 20-100
1852—January	53,014	7 87-100
February	52,169	8 60-100
March	48,337	9 12-100
April	34,301	9 31-100
May	39,198	9 22-100
June	42,278	8 73-100
Total	402,191	8 60-100

The above sales include the transactions from importers' and speculators' hands, and exceed the quantity taken for consumption by about 30,000 bags.

The following table shows the imports, stock, etc.:—

Estimated stock out of grocers' hands on 1st Sept., 1851, of all kinds...bags		4,000
Imports direct from Rio de Janeiro	353,616	
Cuba, Laguira, &c	12,525	
		366,141
Received coastwise for sale, (estimated)		55,000
Making a supply of		425,141
Total supply last year		353,757
Increase		71,384

In the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro there is an increase, as compared with last year, of 78,926 bags. There is also an increase of 2,158 bags in the imports from Cuba, etc., and of 1,800 in the receipts coastwise for sale. The present stock of all kinds, out of grocers' hands, is estimated at 35,000 bags, which would leave 390,141 bags as the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South, against 349,757 bags last year; or an increase of 40,384 bags. The quantity of Rio coffee taken for consumption in the whole United States, during the past year, is estimated at 845,000 bags, of which nearly one-half was furnished through this market, where the aggregate of sales for the year has been over *six millions of dollars*. In a statement published in the Baltimore *American*, said to be from reliable authority, the total produce of all countries, for 1852, is put down at 548,000,000 pounds, while the consumption of Europe and the United States, at the present ratio, is estimated at 640,000,000 lbs., which would be equal to 4,000,000 bags, Brazil. The stock on the 1st of July was estimated at 125,000,000 lbs. for Europe, and 25,000,000 lbs. for the United States.

Our advices from Rio are to the 3d of July. The circulars of 30th June (the close of the crop year) state the total exports to be 1,881,559 bags, against 1,869,967 bags the year previous. Of this quantity, our own country has taken 952,498 bags, distributed as follows:—

	Bags.		Bags.
New Orleans	346,262	Boston	11,758
New York	260,179	Mobile	11,261
Baltimore	207,792	Savannah	4,369
Philadelphia	81,125	California	4,020
Charleston	25,732		

The few samples of new crop which had been received proved of very fine quality, and the opinion is expressed that the crop will be fully an average one in quantity.

EXCHANGE.—The exchange market has maintained a good degree of steadiness during the past season, as will be seen by reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest quotations in each month, for sterling, and for bills at sixty days sight on New York. These figures are intended to represent the prevailing range of the market, though there have probably been, at most periods, some transactions at rates both above and below them:—

STERLING.

	Per cent premium. Highest.		Lowest.	
September	10 a 11		10 a 11	
October	10	11	6¼	8¼
November	9	10	6¼	8¼
December	9	10¼	8¼	9¼
January	8¼	9¼	8	9
February	8¼	9¼	8	9
March	8¼	9¼	8¼	9¼
April	8¼	9¼	8¼	8¾
May	8¾	9¾	8	8¼
June	9¾	10¼	9	10
July	9¾	10¼	9¼	10¼
August	10	10¼	9¾	10¼

NEW YORK 60 DAYS.

	Per cent discount. Highest.		Lowest.	
September	1½ a 2		1¾ a 2¼	
October	2	2¼	3	3¾
November	1¾	2¼	2¾	3¾
December	1¾	2¼	2	2¼
January	2	2¼	2¼	3
February	2	2¼	2¼	3
March	1¼	1¾	2	2¼
April	1	1¼	1¼	1¼
May	1¼	1¾	1¾	2
June	1	1¼	1¼	1¾
July	¾	1	1	1¼
August	¾	1	¾	1¼

FREIGHT.—The freight market has presented considerable fluctuations during the past season, though it has generally been characterized by rather more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for several years past, the extreme range for cotton to Liverpool being ⅛d. to ¼d. per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and lowest rates in each month, for cotton to Liverpool, will sufficiently indicate the course of the market:—

	Pence. Highest.	Lowest.		Pence. Highest.	Lowest.
September.....	3-8	3 8	March.....	5-16	9-16
October.....	5-8	7-16	April.....	9-16	5-8
November.....	1-2	7-16	May.....	1-4	9-16
December.....	3-8	15-32	June.....	1-4	3-8
January	3-8	7-16	July	1-4	3-8
February	5-16	13-32	August.....	5-16	3-8

The total number of arrivals from sea since 1st September, 1851, is 2,351, namely:—

Ships.....	807
Steamships.....	213
Barks.....	371
Brigs.....	287
Schooners.....	673

The entries at the Custom-house for the year ended 30th June, 1851, were as follows:—

Whole number of vessels.....	2,266
Tonnage.....	910,855

The increase, compared with last year, is 212 vessels and 142,827 tons. Included in the arrivals are 412 foreign vessels, from foreign ports, with a total measurement of 185,386 tons. This is an increase on last year of 80 vessels and 48,388 tons.

Art. IV.—A PRACTICAL TREATISE ON BUSINESS.*

MONEY GETTING.

MONEY—*to get money*—let us frankly admit at the outset, is the aim, the paramount end of business, of retail and wholesale, of business on a large scale, of business on a small scale, of the peddler, of the merchant-prince, of him who trades under the open sky, at the corner of the street, of him who sends ships to the ends of the earth, whose calculations take in the fortunes of nations, and whose operations may determine peace and war, the happiness or misery of millions. MONEY! with what an intonation of contempt the word is sometimes uttered. The "accursed hunger for gold" is the standard subject of classical and philosophical anathema. Yet with what a secret charm the word falls on the mental ear! The theory of getting money is the theory of business, and is the topic of the interesting book whose title we give below.

Mr. Freedley's book is written with much liveliness of style, is full of anecdotes and illustrations, and abounds in practical suggestions, based upon

* A Practical Treatise on Business; or, How to Get, Save, Spend, Give, Lend, and Bequeath Money, with an Inquiry into the Chances of Success and Causes of Failure in Business. By EDWIN T. FREEDLEY. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

the present business prospects and relations of the country. It may be read with profit not only by those who are entering upon business life, but by those also who would compare their own experience with that of others, and whose minds are open to new suggestions. We must needs like the book, yet find it difficult to quote from it—and for one and the same reason. Not only have the ideas been again and again inculcated in our pages, but Mr. Freedley has had the good taste to avail himself of our labors by liberal extracts. The merit of the work is, that it presents, in a compendious and convenient shape, the opinions of many experienced business men, and many hints and suggestions, either original or derived from reliable sources, relative to business management, the choice of business, habits of business, "getting money by farming," "getting money by merchandising," "how to get customers," "the true man of business," "how to get rich by speculation, banking, patent inventions," "how to become millionares," and "the chances of success." So much has been said in our pages on all these topics, that by quoting we run the risk of repetition.

Getting money (we repeat the confession) is the chief end of business. But what is money? Money is bread. Money is raiment. Money is shelter. Money is education, refinement, books, pictures, music. Money is the society of the learned and accomplished. Is it less true, than in Solomon's time, that "wealth maketh many friends; but the poor is separated from his neighbor?" Money is science, invention, discovery, enterprise. Money is the canal, the railroad, the telegraph, the steamship. In short, in modern society, under modern governments of law, the essence of which seems to consist in rigidly maintaining the distinction of *meum and tuum*, money takes the place of that arbitrary rule of the king, the baron, the aristocrat, which in old times commanded by power, what is now only to be obtained by wealth. "Commerce is king," it is said; say rather money, which is the end of Commerce. And here lies the danger. The danger is that a new power, more cruel, more heartless, than kingly or feudal power, shall, in the form of capital and monopoly, rise to crush the mass of men. For money is hardening to the heart. Money is selfish. Money is rivalry, competition, deceit. Money sends "the weak to the wall," and says, "Every man for himself." That mixture of good and evil, which we find everywhere in the world, has its acme and highest point in that greatest of merely earthly good, that "root of all earthly evil"—money. Not to be "taken from the world, but to be delivered from the evil that is in the world," must be the motto and the prayer of every true merchant. Let him feel that while he is laboring for the increase and distribution of wealth, he is working for the elevation and civilization of the masses. Let him feel that in pursuing trade for the purpose of acquiring wealth, the first object, the main object, he is never "delivered from temptation."

Franklin was the first, we think, to bring together in a somewhat formal way the maxims of business, and thus do something to establish a theory of business life. By his essays, his biography, and the collection of sayings in "Poor Richard," he did more than any man before him, more than any man since, perhaps, to shape the business mind of America, to say nothing of the influence of his works in Europe. Some carp at the mercenary spirit, the low aims, which they are pleased to discover in Franklin's economical teachings. But to require of a writer, who is to teach us how to better our material condition, exalted views of our moral or intellectual nature or aims in life, is simply to wander from the question. There are, doubtless, things

infinitely higher in life than money or physical well-being, but bread is *prior*, if other things are higher. *To live* is the previous question, which has to be settled before men can determine *how* they shall live, morally or sensually, wisely or foolishly.

The idea of Mr. Freedley's book appears to be to exhibit, in a formal treatise, the theory of business, developing thus Franklin's idea, and adapting it to the present state of business, and present physical, commercial, and industrial development of the country. We are not aware that this has ever been attempted before. And his execution of the plan is, in many respects, highly satisfactory. We say, theory of business. Why should it not have its theory as well as law or medicine? Every practice has its theory. There is a good way, there is a bad way of doing everything. The good way is the true, the bad way is the false theory of that thing, whatever it is, whether "playing on the stops" of a pipe or of the world, practicing a profession or "doing business."* There are rules and maxims of mercantile life, the observance of which is, as a general thing, as necessary to success as that of the rules of geometry to the engineer, or of the rules of war to the soldier. It is true some business men are less systematically and *consciously* governed by formal rules than others, but, we repeat, no man can act, without acting upon some rule, good or bad, the suggestion of the moment, or the result of previous thought.

This practical treatise contains a chapter of opinions of rich men as to the how, the mode of getting rich. "John Jacob Astor," says the author, "I am informed by his son, W. B. Astor, is not known to have had any fundamental rule or favorite maxim" of business life. Yet there can be no doubt that in this instance of colossal fortune, Mr. Astor's positive genius for money-making was aided by a sort of instinctive observance of the rules and habits suggested by the best mercantile experience.

The readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* will bear us witness that we have at all times endeavored to inculcate sound rules, a true theory of business. It has been a standing topic in these pages, which would but poorly exhibit the literature of Commerce if it neglected the theory of business. Our mercantile biography has furnished excellent illustrations of the best rules for the conduct of business life. Many of the maxims of most direct and practical bearing, are stated with much force, and illustrated by example in the biography of John Grigg, the eminent bookseller of Philadelphia, which we gave in the number for July, 1851. That sketch has been so widely copied, and so often quoted, that we are encouraged to hope that the rules and maxims it contains, drawn from and illustrated by the rich and varied experience of that excellent man, will be of use to the young merchants of America. All men may not possess his business genius, but the business virtues of industry, punctuality, and honor, are within the reach of all. If the man of highest business capacity cannot dispense with these, how can others do without them?

The chapter of opinions, to which we have referred, contains rules for acquiring wealth, or, as Mr. Freedley expresses it, "how to become millionaires," attributed to Rothschild, David Ricardo, Girard, and others:—

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* The idea, in short, is that of Bacon, respecting the true mode of philosophical inquiry, enlarged and applied to all the pursuits of life—"*Nihil veniat in practicam cujus non fit etiam doctrina aliqua et theoria.*"

HOW TO BECOME MILLIONAIRES—OPINIONS OF MILLIONAIRES.

Many of those who have risen to elevated positions by unlocking the golden gates of wealth, have favored the world with very valuable opinions which they regarded as the key to their success, and a recapitulation of them in a connected form, which was never done before, will afford us entertainment, and perhaps instruction.

ROTHSCHILD'S OPINION. The founder of this world-renowned house, whose immense transactions we may subsequently notice, is said to have ascribed his early success to the following rules:—

1. "I combined three profits; I made the manufacturer my customer, and the one I bought of my customer; that is, I supplied the manufacturer with raw materials and dyes; on each of which I made a profit, and took his manufactured goods, which I sold at a profit; and thus combined three profits.

2. "Make a bargain at once. Be an off-hand man.

3. "*Never have anything to do with an unlucky man or place.* I have seen," said he, "many clever men who had not shoes to their feet. I never act with them; their advice sounds very well, but fate is against them; they cannot get on themselves; how can they do good to me?

4. "*Be cautious and bold.* It requires a great deal of boldness and a great deal of caution to make a great fortune; and when you have got it, it requires ten times as much wit to keep it."

The continued prosperity of the eminent banking-house of the Rothschilds is ascribed, in the following biographical extract, to two principles:—"He who does not delay for casualties, and has knowledge enough to perceive that in all great affairs the success not only depends on the choice and use of the favorable moment, but *especially on the pursuit of an acknowledged fundamental maxim,* will soon perceive that particularly two principles were never neglected by this banking-house; to which, besides to a prudent performance of its business and to advantageous conjunctures, it owes the greatest part of its present wealth and respectability.

"The first of these principles was that which caused the five brothers to carry on their business in a perpetual and uninterrupted communion. This was the golden rule bequeathed to them by their dying father. Since his death, every proposition, let it come from whom it may, is the object of their common deliberations. Every important undertaking was carried on by a combined effort, after a plan agreed upon, and all had an equal share in the result. Though for several years their customary residences were very remote, this circumstance could never interrupt their harmony; it rather gave them this advantage, that they were always perfectly well instructed of the condition of things in the different capitals—that each of them, on his part, could the better prepare and initiate the affairs to be undertaken by the firm. The second principle in perpetual view of this house is, not to seek an excessive profit in any undertaking; to assign certain limits to every enterprise; and, as much as human caution and prudence can do, to make themselves independent of the play of accidents."

DAVID RICARDO, the celebrated political economist, was born in London, of a Jewish family, in 1772. His character for probity, industry, and talent, early procured for him the means of support; and becoming a member of the Stock Exchange, he accumulated an immense property. He is author of many works on finance; and in 1819 was elected to parliament. Died, 1823. He had what he called his own three golden rules; the observance of which he used to press on his private friends. These were:—

"Never to refuse an option when you can get it.

"Cut short your losses.

"Let your profits run on."

By cutting short one's losses, Mr. Ricardo meant that, when a member had made a purchase of stock, and prices were falling, he ought to resell immediately. And by letting one's profits run on, he meant that, when a member possessed stock, and the prices were rising, he ought not to sell until prices had

reached their highest, and were beginning again to fall. These are indeed golden rules, and may be applied with advantage to innumerable transactions other than those connected with the Stock Exchange.

JOHN JACOB ASTOR, I am informed by his son, W. B. Astor, is not known to have had any fundamental rule or favorite maxim, and the general outline of his career is too well known to need rehearsal.

NICHOLAS LONGWORTH, the millionaire of Cincinnati, was born in Newark, N. J., January 16th, 1783. Formerly a cobbler, as I have been informed, he removed to Cincinnati in 1804, studied law, and practiced for some fifteen years. His earnings and savings he invested in lots around Cincinnati, the rise of which was the foundation of his fortune. He then turned his attention entirely to land and lot speculations, which, in a rising market, as that has always been, is a business in which all is gain, and nothing loss. As an example of the facility with which small amounts, comparatively, secured what has since become of immense value, Mr. Cist, in his memoir of him, states that Mr. Longworth once received as a legal fee from a fellow who was accused of horse-stealing, and who had nothing else to give, two second-hand copper stills. The gentleman who had them in possession refused to give them up, but proposed to Mr. Longworth to give him a lot of thirty-three acres on Western Row, in lieu of them—a proposal which the latter, whose opinions of the value of such property were ahead of his time, gladly accepted. This transaction alone, taking into view the prodigious increase of real estate in that city, would have formed the basis for an immense fortune, the naked ground being now worth *two millions* of dollars.

What Mr. Longworth is worth is not known. The estimates vary greatly, and it is probable that after his death there will be considerable litigation. A gentleman recently has recovered land from him to the value of $500,000. In 1850, his taxes amounted to upwards of $17,000, which is the largest sum paid by any individual in the United States, William B. Astor excepted, whose taxes for the same year were $23,116. It must be remembered, however, that the taxes in Cincinnati are no trifle on any amount of property.

Mr. Longworth's opinion probably is that speculating in real estate, in a constantly rising market, is a very good business. I am informed, by a friend in that city, that he holds it to be an indispensable requisite, that a man who desires to get rich, should be from Jersey, where he himself hails from. I regard this as metaphorical language, meaning, probably, that he must have a *sandy* head and a stony heart.

JOHN FREEDLEY'S never-varying motto was—self-dependence, self-reliance.

"It is a mistaken notion," he writes, "that capital alone is necessary to success in business. If a man has head and hands suited to his business, it will soon procure him capital. My observations through life satisfy me that at least nine-tenths of those most successful in business start in life without any reliance except upon their own head and hands—hoe their own row from the jump. All professions and occupations alike give the field for talent, perseverance, and industry; and these qualities, whether in the East, West, or South, sooner or later, will crown the aspirant with success. But to enable any new beginner to succeed, he must not be allured from his course by attractive appearances, nor be driven from it by trifling adverse gales. He must fit himself for the calling he adopts, and then pursue his course with a steady eye. The first and great object in business is to make yourself independent—to have the means of livelihood without being under obligations to any person; whatever more is acquired increases the power of doing good and extends influence."

Mr. Freedley's opinion of the value of our own labors is almost too flattering to quote, but his business reasons for subscribing for the *Merchants' Magazine* are so ingenious and excellent that we cannot resist giving ourselves the benefit of his commendation:—

I cannot omit this opportunity, as an act of justice to Mr. Hunt, who has done as much as any man in America to raise the reputation of American books in

England, and in justice to all who may favor this book with a perusal, to commend Mr. Hunt's Magazine to their especial attention and patronage, as one of the most certainly profitable investments they can make. Every business man should as certainly subscribe for it as he should insure his property. In the case of insurance, if his property does not burn down, he loses his money, but in the case of subscription to that Magazine he will not lose his money in any event, and may reap an advantage as great as the restoration of property destroyed. In the first place, he will increase his stock of useful and practical ideas, which in itself is worth more than the cost; secondly, he will possess the most comprehensive work of the age for present and future reference; and thirdly, he will take the best possible means to put himself in the way of meeting with suggestions and ideas that may happen to just suit his circumstances, and which he may turn to his advantage to the tune of hundreds or thousands of dollars. Let every one be watchful, for he knows not the day nor the hour when the good idea may come.

By way of pendant to Mr. Freedley's flattering opinion of the *Merchants' Magazine*, we feel bound to give the opinion, freely and warmly expressed to us by an old and eminent merchant, whose experience is the best of commentaries on the practical rules of business given in this work, and whose well-known name, were we allowed to publish it, would add weight with every reader to the recommendation that "every father of a family should read it carefully, and then each of his sons. The book is calculated to do much good in this country, and should be widely circulated."

Art. V.—THE TWO RAILROAD ROUTES, AND THE TWO LAKE PORTS.

It does not appear difficult to determine, with a degree of certainty, the two most important railroad routes of the United States. If the most favorable topography and the line of densest population are found to coincide; and great sections with diverse products can be best united on that line, it would seem undeniable that such is *the* route. These characteristics seem to be possessed by two routes only. One nearly follows, in its general course, a line of latitude uniting the commercial and manufacturing East with the food-and-raw-material-producing West. The other unites the States of the Gulf with the States of the Lakes, in a nearly longitudinal course. Both are well worthy of characteristic names. If the public were as strongly impressed with their preëminence as the writer is, they might be named the "Latitudinal" and "Longitudinal" railroads. It is scarcely to be hoped that these names would be adopted. For convenience, then, the one might be called the "*Mississippi, Lake and Hudson*" Railroad, and the other the "Gulf and Lake" Railroad. Commencing on the bend of the Mississippi, where it approaches nearest the head of Lake Michigan, passing around the head of that lake, and thence east to the head of Lake Erie; thence eastward on both sides of the lake, to Buffalo; and thence, by the best route, to the navigable waters of the Hudson, at Albany. The topography of this line was sufficiently set forth in the article on Western railroads, in the July number of this Magazine. Its merits, as the northernmost latitudinal line practicable, as the necessary trunk-line for many lateral canals and railroads, and as affording the best means of reciprocating with lake-navigation the business appropriate to each, were also there sufficiently set forth.

An important consideration was not then urged. *It is on the line of densest population.* No other latitudinal road, connecting the Mississippi with the navigable waters of the Atlantic, can be made, approaching this in cheapness of construction and of running cost, where the population, throughout its line, is so great and rapidly increasing. It passes through or near a large number of commercial towns and cities. Albany, Troy, Schenectady, Utica, Syracuse, Rochester, Lockport, Buffalo, Dunkirk, Erie, Cleveland, Sandusky, Toledo, Hamilton, Detroit, and Chicago, are nearly all places of commercial note. The villages between these are numerous and thriving—some of them soon to grow into cities of note.

If there be any other latitudinal railroad route to connect the East with the West, at all comparable with this thousand-mile line—in its connections with a lateral water and land Commerce—in the level character of the country through which it passes—in the density of the population on and near its line—and in the number and importance of the commercial marts which it links together, it has entirely escaped a most careful scrutiny of the various would-be competing routes.

The second great route is that which is to connect the Gulf of Mexico with the lakes. Here there is show of competition. The Cairo line now makes most noise in the speculating world. The Cincinnati line, it seems to us will be *the* line, at least up to the close of the present century. Can it be otherwise? Look at the commercial towns on the two routes. Their population, including dependant suburbs, will be estimated for 1855, when the lines will be finished:—Dayton, 22,000; Cincinnati, 200,000; Louisville, 65,000; New Albany, 18,000; Nashville, 12,000. The towns not named will equal, in population, all the commercial points on the Cairo line, except Memphis, which may be put down at 15,000. The intermediate towns above named, on the Cincinnati line, will number 317,000, against 15,000 on the Cairo line. The population of the counties through which the two lines pass would not exhibit so great a disparity; but still will show a great difference in favor of the Cincinnati route. Their termini, on the Gulf, New Orleans, Mobile, and Pensacola would be common to the two. Chicago, the lake terminus of the Cairo road, will number 65,000; while Toledo, the most important lake terminus of Cincinnati road, will number some 10,000. Cleveland, the other chief terminus, will number, with its suburbs, 40,000. Detroit will contain nearly as many as Cleveland. In lateral auxiliary railroads, the Cincinnati line will receive those from North Alabama, Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina, and all west of the mountains, in Tennessee, and Kentucky, which seek business with Cincinnati, the Lakes and Gulf. The important Atlantic ports, Charleston and Savannah will have their best western trade by this line.

The Cairo line will have, as special auxiliaries, the roads leading eastwardly from the various Mississippi towns, Natchez, Vicksburg, Memphis, St. Louis, Alton, Quincy, Rock Island, Galena, &c. These, with the great country concentrating, by lake and railroad, upon Chicago, cannot fail to make it a great thoroughfare between Lake and Gulf. Its through freight traffic may be as as large as that of its rival; and, ultimately, larger: but, in its way-traffic and through passenger business, its inferiority appears too manifest to need farther remark.

No proof will be required by the well-informed reader, that no road connecting the cold and warm regions of our country, on the Atlantic coast, or west of the Mississipi, can be made with equal certainty of commanding a

great traffic, as either of the railroads under consideration. The better of the two, the "Cincinnati" is therefore to be *the* "*longitudinal*" railroad of the United States, as that which skirts the great lakes, from east to west, is *the* "*latitudinal.*" The "Gulf and Lake" road to Detroit would fall but little short of one thousand miles in extent.

Which are to be *the two* lake ports? The popular belief would, probably, place Buffalo first, and Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Toronto, or Oswego as second. What would be the judgment of a reflecting man, well informed as to the causes which develop the growth of modern cities, and coming to the examination of the value of the various positions for commercial towns, on the great lakes, with full geographical knowledge of the whole country, and without previous bias, it would be interesting to know. Especially so, if that judgment had been formed previous to the settlement of the country, and on the basis of an anticipated increase and spread of population, such as has taken place.

Looking over the borders of the lakes for such projections of navigable water into the land, as bring the largest extent of country within the shortest distance of a port, the heads of lakes Erie and Michigan could not fail to arrest his attention. Knowing that water transport costs little, compared with land carriage, the harbor which can be reached by the shortest road may be expected to command the trade of the country nearer to it, than any other equally good port. With this knowledge, he could not fail to perceive that the heads of these great lakes command a greater extent of country than any other points on the Lakes. His next inquiry would be for good harbors at these points. At the head of Lake Erie, he would discover the noblest river estuary of the Lakes, affording deep water and an extensive harbor, perfectly protected and of easy access. Just at the head of Lake Michigan, no harbor could be found, but, some twelve miles north, a good harbor might be seen formed by nature, requiring only a moderate outlay to deepen and keep open its entrance.

Such were the natural advantages of these positions, as gathering and distributing points of Commerce for the surrounding country. It will be seen at a glance, that they are also the natural points of gathering and distributing for the Lake coasts. Not less favorable is their position for exchanging products of the Lakes, of the Eastern States, and Europe, with the cities of the great river valley and the Gulf of Mexico.

To add strength to such liberal gifts of Nature, artificial water channels have connected these harbors with the great *river* Commerce of the West. There enters in the harbor of Toledo the noblest system of canals in the world. Towards the south, it unites her with Cincinnati, and passing diagonally through Indiana, reaches the Ohio River at Evansville. Over six hundred miles of these canals are now in use. Next year, the whole system, embracing nearly seven hundred miles, will be completed.

Chicago is connected with the navigable waters of the Illinois River by a noble canal, one hundred miles long.

"But these lakes and canals are old-fashioned affairs Railroads, my dear sir, will upset all your calculations based on lake and canal navigation." Let us see. Railroads are admirable. Without them, *the* two lake ports would be shorn of much of their power—positive and relative. It is by means of railroads, in good part, that they are soon to make manifest their unrivaled position for Commerce. Railroads will, however, neither make "our canals a solitude, nor our lakes a desert waste of waters." On the contrary, they

will give new efficiency to both. Railroads will carry some kinds of freight, although the cost is five times as much as by steamers on the Lakes, and twice as great as by canal. The lowest charge per ton for 2,000 lbs., per mile, for the year 1851, on the New-York railroads, was, that of the Northern, over two cents. On the Lake, between Toledo and Buffalo, steam propellers carry for one-third of a cent per ton, per mile; and at the same rate to and from Oswego.

Grain is taken from Chicago to Buffalo for less than one-fifth of a cent per ton, per mile. For the average of the season, a fair freight on the Lakes would be one-third of a cent, which is less than one-sixth the charge on the cheapest-carrying New-York railroad. A fair freight, including reasonable tolls on the New York and Western canals, would be one cent and two mills. If parallel railroads should undertake to carry at so low a rate, as to take from canals their appropriate freight, the tolls would of course be so reduced as to cheapen transportation beyond the power of railroad competition.

If the effect of future improvement in railroading is to be considered, so is the greater probability of canal enlargement, and a beneficial change in their rude mode of traction. Railroads have sometimes carried favorite freight, such as flour, long distances at canal rates. But this, according to their reports, was below the cost of carrying, and could not be kept up in a large business. The *cost* to the company of carrying per ton of 2,000 lbs. per mile, on the Syracuse and Utica Railroad, in 1851, is reported by the Company at a fraction less than one cent and a half. This is exclusive of any profit, and on that road, in the State of New-York, which carried at a less cost than any other, except the Northern. The cost on the *New-York and Erie Railroad* was a cent and a half, and its charge a small fraction below three cents. When a railroad carries below cost, it is probably to give éclat to the road; certainly not to earn dividends on the articles carried. It is not unlikely that Western railroads, on the best routes, may carry at a cost, to the companies, of one cent, and at a *charge* of one cent and six-tenths per ton, per mile. At that rate, they would do a large freight business.

On which of the lake ports will this business chiefly concentrate? It has been shown in previous articles of this *Magazine*, that the tendency of the exterior and home Commerce of the great Western plain is towards and through the Lakes. The tonnage of the lake ports of the States exceeds 225,000; and of Canada, probably 100,000. The tonnage of the river steamers does not exceed 160,000. It may be assumed that most of the Commerce of the great river valley, destined for the East and North through the Lakes, will be first gathered in at the principal river marts. These, on the Ohio, are Cincinnati, Louisville, New Albany, Madison, Evansville, Maysville, Portsmouth, Marietta, Wheeling, Steubenville and Pittsburg. The three latter are most likely to communicate with the ocean through Philadelphia and Baltimore. Maysville, Portsmouth and Marietta, will reach the lake most conveniently at Cleveland. Cincinnati, Madison, Louisville and New Albany, are, geographically and commercially, nearer Toledo than any other lake port. Evansville is 55 miles nearer Chicago than to Toledo; but the latter is 700 miles nearer New-York. Great part of the Commerce of the Ohio River below Pittsburg, concentrates in Cincinnati and the marts below.

Which of the ports of Lake Erie is best adapted to secure the railroad freight business of these marts with the lake borders and the Eastern States?

In making the comparison, it must be borne in mind, that freights from Dunkirk, Buffalo, and all the ports of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence, are taken, at the same rates, to Cleveland, Sandusky, Toledo and Detroit. It is stated, on high authority, that the forwarding merchants of New-York prefer to ship to Toledo at the same rates; whether, because that harbor furnishes more down freights, or is easier of access in all weathers, is not known. It is beyond doubt, that navigators prefer the harbor of Toledo to that of Sandusky, and that sailing vessels coming up the Lake can reach Toledo with all winds better than Detroit. Keeping in view the advantage which the canals to Cincinnati and Evansville give to Toledo over Detroit and Sandusky, in the immense quantity of down-lake freight which they furnish to vessels entering her port, it will be reasonable to expect a continuance of the preference now entertained by the navigating interest. If, however, we allow that Cleveland will have the advantage which her shorter down-lake navigation (shorter by 105 miles than Toledo) will give her, in Eastern exchanges, it will remain to be shown that her longer line of railroad from Cincinnati (longer by at least 50 miles) will not more than balance this advantage.

But we have shown that the cost of carrying by railroad, is five times as great as by lake, even on the short voyage through Lake Erie. The additional 50 miles of railroad would, therefore, be equivalent to 250 by water.

The length of railroads from Cincinnati to the several Lake ports, is as follows:

To Cleveland.....	258 miles.	To Toledo (as surveyed)..	195 miles.
" Sandusky.....	219 "	" Detroit (as estimated).	250 "

On the best practical routes, they would be nearly as follows:

To Cleveland.....	245 miles.	To Toledo.....	190 miles.
" Sandusky.....	200 "	" Detroit.....	245 "

In the business of the Lakes above Lake Erie and in the Canada railroad traffic, Toledo will have the advantage in position and distance. This trade will increase much faster than that with the Old States.

That the contest for the carriage of freight between Cincinnati and Lake Erie, will result in favor of Toledo, a careful examination of all the bearings of the question seems to leave no room for doubt. The shortest and best railroad, aided by the canal, to the best harbor, must be decisive. But, if it could be shown, that Cleveland may divide the railroad freights of Cincinnati with Toledo, or even take the whole, there would remain with Toledo the canal freights of that great city, and the railroad freights of the cities west and northwest of Cincinnati, whose relative distance from the two lake ports would be more in favor of Toledo as their position approached Chicago, until, at that place, the boat route to Cleveland would pass through Toledo.

At the mouth of the Ohio, Toledo would meet a rival in Chicago. The difference in distance, in a straight line, is nearly one hundred miles. By the best route for a railroad to each, the difference would be about 110 miles. As most of the freights will take the river and canal routes, it is of no great importance to either city, which is preferred in the railroad business of Cairo with the Lakes. The passenger and express-freight traffic of Cairo may take the line through Toledo, Detroit and the north shore of Lake Erie, or by a more southerly route to Cleveland, and so by the South Shore Railroad.

It matters little to the lake cities, which has the greatest share of the passenger and express-freight traffic. Where commercial equivalents most do congregate for distribution, there will be the men to manage them.

As to Chicago, she is not only at present a large city; but her great future destiny is too plainly written on the map, to need any array of facts or reasons, to show that she will be among the greatest of our American cities. Her present rate of progress will give her position as the most populous city of the Lakes, *certainly* within five years, *probably* within three. After she shall have passed Buffalo, as she has passed all the other lake marts that had precedence once, her next race will be with her great rival on the Mississippi, St. Louis. In 1860, she will have overtaken and passed by Charleston, Providence, Washington, Rochester, Buffalo, and Louisville. She will then ke position as number eight (8) among our great cities.

How *long* it will take Toledo to overtake in *populousness*, as she has overtaken and passed by, in *Commerce*, Sandusky, Detroit, Milwaukie and Cleveland, cannot, now, be safely predicted. That she will not only pass *them*, but also Oswego, Buffalo, Toronto, Montreal and Quebec, we can perceive no r easonable ground to doubt.

Chicago and Toledo are *the* marts into which will be collected the varied productions of the Lake borders, the Eastern States, and Europe, to be transported by canal and railroad, to the distributing marts of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys and of the Gulf of Mexico; and from which will be distributed the return products of the river valleys and the tropical merchandise collected in the Gulf ports, for the interior markets.

It is not intended to convey the impression, that no other Lake cities will participate in this Commerce in any degree. There is a portion of the Ohio River valley nearer to Cleveland than to any other Lake port, the intercourse of which with the Lakes is naturally drawn to this beautiful city. Many of the towns of the upper Mississippi will find more convenient shipping ports on Lake Michigan, than Chicago. Not only will Cleveland, Sandusky, Detroit, Milwaukie and other Lake ports, have the benefit of the chief trade of the country nearer to them than to the other Lake towns, but they will carry on with the South and West their own railroad traffic. Each has peculiar advantages of its own, sufficient to give it all the rapidity of growth which even its sanguine in-dwellers anticipate.

Nine years ago, in the 9th vol. of this Magazine, the opinion was expressed, that Cleveland, Toledo and Chicago, would, in forty-seven years, each be larger than Buffalo. Within one-third of that period, Chicago will have proved the accuracy of the calculation, by numbering more thousands than Buffalo. Beyond a doubt, Chicago will be at the head of our Lake cities before 1860. Up to this time, she has exceeded our calculations, while Toledo has fallen short; Cleveland has vindicated what was said in her favor, and will overtake Buffalo and be second on the Lake "string of pearls," before she is overtaken by Toledo; and in a period, not much, if any, exceeding half of the forty-seven years, allotted for that feat.

Toledo, though in amount of tonnage entering and leaving her port exceeding every city above Buffalo, Chicago perhaps excepted, has failed to exhibit that rapid growth, in population and indigenous industry, which, from the coming in of her canals, was anticipated. Appearances, now, indicate a growth much more rapid, and nothing seems likely to be in the way of a rapidly successful career in the pathway of her destiny. Her position for the concentration of railroads, is more favorable than that of any other Lake

city. Lake Erie so narrows to a point at its western extremity, that it scarcely offers an obstruction, to Toledo, of more than one point of the compass, while it cuts off Cleveland from some fifteen of the thirty-two points. She is placed where all the railroad traffic, between Canada and the chief cities of the lower Ohio and the Gulf of Mexico, must pass. This will become immense, on the completion of the railroad now progressing from Cincinnati to Detroit.

Although it has been proven that Toledo and Chicago are the two Lake ports most favorably placed for the concentration of the freight traffic of railroads, it has not been claimed that they will be pre-eminent as centers of passenger and express-goods traffic. And yet, it will be difficult to find a point on the map of our country, at which there will exist so many claims for a concentration of such traffic, as at Toledo: and perhaps Toledo, alone, has in that respect the advantage of Chicago.

It is not a mere anticipation to fix on Toledo and Chicago as *the* two Lake ports. They are now, in amount of tonnage laden and discharged, at the head of the shipping ports, on the Lakes above Buffalo.

In contemplating the commercial advantages of a position, the difference between a mere transit trade and a Commerce which gathers and distributes commercial equivalents on all sides, is not always taken into account. Buffalo is a gathering and distributing port for the upper lakes in their Commerce with the East only, but a mere point of transit for productions sent down the canal. Chicago and Toledo are gathering and distributing centers for the country on every side, by water and by land; as well of the Commerce which effects exchanges between the New States and the Old, as of that which collects and distributes the peculiar productions of the cold regions of the Lakes and the hot climate of the Gulf borders. In the not distant future, the Commerce of these two cities, between the two climates and for the intermediate country, will become far more important than that which will be carried on between the Old States and the New, of the same climate.

The Lake States and Canadas are to become eminently commercial and manufacturing. They need, and *will have*, a good water way for large vessels from the Lakes to the Atlantic coast and to Europe. By the Lake Champlain route, a way must be opened for ships between Montreal and New York. And between Montreal and the Lakes, the canals and locks must be enlarged for the passage of vessels, of at least one thousand tons; so that the Ocean shall be truly wedded to the Great Lakes, instead of being only affianced, as at present.

Before these works could be completed, if now entered upon, Canada West and the Lake States (including half of Pennsylvania, New-York, and Vermont) will number at least eleven millions of people, of whom nine millions will have a deep interest in opening such direct channels of Commerce with the ocean coasts. Congress has just made provision for a ship canal into Lake Superior. It now remains for Canada to enlarge the locks of the Welland Canal, and make a ship canal across from the St. Lawrence near Montreal, to the deep waters of the St. John's River on Lake Champlain; and for the State or City of New-York, to make a ship canal from Lake Champlain to the deep waters of the Hudson River.

The locks around the Falls of the St. Lawrence, from Lake Ontario to Montreal, are 28 in number, 200 feet long by 55 feet wide, overcoming an aggregate fall of 188 feet. The locks around the Falls of the Niagara

River, from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, are 35 in number, 126 feet long by 26 feet wide, and overcome a fall of 329 feet.

From the St. Lawrence to the Hudson the lockage need not exceed one hundred and fifty feet, and the length of canals not over one hundred miles.

Is this too great an undertaking for the city of New York? J. W. S.

Art. VI.—GOLD MINING OPERATIONS IN CALIFORNIA.

Gold is found in crystalline primitive rocks, transition rocks, trap rocks and alluvial grounds. It never predominates to such an extent as to constitute distinct veins by itself. It is either disseminated, and as it were impasted, in strong masses, or spread out in thin plates or grains on the surface, or lastly implanted in their cavities under the shape of filaments or crystallized twigs. The minerals composing the veins, are either quartz, calcspar, or sulphate of baryta.

With the exception of iron, it may be safely asserted that the geological districts, within which gold occurs, embrace a larger aggregate area than that of any other metal. Yet the proportion of gold, to that of the substances from which it must be separated for the use of mankind, is so moderate, that the cost of eliminating it, must necessarily be such as to maintain a high commercial value in all future time.

The gold bearing veins of rock usually consist of quartz, a white vitreous stone, and one of the ingredients of granite. These, like all true veins, are generally inclined at a large angle to the plane of the horizon, and are often vertical or nearly so. In thickness they vary considerably; the same vein is sometimes contracted to the width of a few inches, whilst at other points it is expanded in thickness to many yards. They extend downwards to greater depths than the miner has ever reached.

By far the largest portion of gold hitherto has been procured from the deposits of diluvium and alluvium in the valleys and ravines which have been formed in those regions where metallic veins existed prior to the formation of such valleys and ravines.

Notwithstanding the apparently large quantity of gold hitherto procured in these deposits, from the most remote periods, we may safely assume that it bears an infinitely small proportion to what yet remains imprisoned within the rocks, at no greater distance from the surface than has already been reached by the industrious miner in other researches. The small amount of space occupied by the ravines and valleys of excavation in metalliferous regions, compared with that remaining below and between them, clearly proves the correctness of this opinion.

In our remarks upon gold mining in this article, we shall confine our attention strictly to that branch of the subject which has begun to attract attention already in California. We mean the method of obtaining the metal from the rock, or quartz mining as it is called.

The particulars which we shall present as facts, have been obtained from the most reliable sources, and the evidence of their correctness is most extensive and varied. We have, however, presented them as the best information within our reach.

The extent of the quartz region, in which gold exists, in California, has been estimated by one of the latest and most intelligent explorers, Professor Blake, as of vast extent. His words are these:—

"There can be no doubt but that the quartz veins of California are capable of furnishing a supply of gold, which it will probably take centuries to exhaust; and the amount of which is far beyond the limits of calculation, at least with our present data. Scattered over a belt of land ten miles broad and running the whole length of the country, north and south, these veins are evidently the deposits of immense riches. Setting aside the extraordinary yields, where some hundreds of thousands of dollars have been obtained from holes of a few feet square, we still have hundreds of miles of veins from which ore can be obtained yielding from two to six cents to the pound, and from which a powerful machine can extract from one to two thousand dollars a day. When these veins are exhausted, there will remain many others which will be profitably worked when labor shall become cheaper. There can be no doubt but that quartz mining is destined to be the most permanent source of gold in this country; and it will not be many years before it will attract that attention, which as an investment of capital it evidently deserves."

Professor Spickur, another scientific explorer, who has extensively examined those regions, has published some account of them, from which we make the following extract:—

"The California gold-mining region proper, that is to say, where active operations are being carried on, extends at present from the Mariposa River on the south to the Klamath River, the boundary line of Oregon on the north, running in a south-east and north-west course a distance of nearly five hundred miles, and consists of the spurs and foot range of mountains of the Sierra Nevada."

The number of veins has never been estimated. In the locality of Carson Creek some of the richest has been found, and the yield of gold to individuals working with hand mortars only, has been large. This is within the Sonora District.

In Grass Valley as extensive mining operations have been carried on as in any other locality. The rock in this district is very uniform in its richness, and the yield has been very uniform and extremely profitable. The mills in this district have been invariably successful.

At Quartzburg and its vicinity, extending to the Mariposa in the south, the veins are unusually rich. The same is true of Bounville and its vicinity, in the north.

These are only a few of the numerous rich localities.

The title to real estate in California, especially mining tracts, is of such a kind as the circumstances alone have created, but its validity in consequence of a general Act of the State Legislature, is as good as in any State of the Union against all persons or powers, except the government of the United States. Nor could the United States, after having suffered their rights to remain dormant for such a length of time, now set up any claim to the mining lands, or attempt to enforce it, which would easily be acquiesced in.

The right to dig in any spot is called a claim; but by a regulation among the miners themselves, no person can set up an original claim to more than one hundred feet in length of a quartz vein. If therefore any person discovers a quartz vein, and commences working it, the miners who hear of the discovery immediately come on the ground and stake out, each man for

himself, a hundred feet, and begin work. The original discoverer is allowed an extra hundred feet, in consideration of his discovery. After the several claims are staked out, one of the number of persons is elected a recorder; and a record is made of the claims as of the deeds in a county clerk's office. To this record an Act of the Legislature has given the same validity as that which is possessed by the records in the other States. A paper, which is a copy of the record, is also affixed to some tree on the spot.

After these steps have been taken, any individual can sell his claim to any purchaser, and the sale passes a title which is good against all the world—the United States only excepted.

Such is the title derived from occupation and settlement. It obtains entire confidence; for the opinion prevails in all parts of the State, as we are informed, that the government of the United States will manifest the same liberality, and extend the same protection to the pioneers and settlers in California, as to the emigrants to other new States. There is also a class of titles derived from Mexican grants, each embracing tracts of several leagues. There are only a few of these, and but little respect has hitherto been paid to them by miners.

Claims, such as we have been speaking of, are often sold for many thousand dollars. The price of a vein is governed by the richness of the ore, and the facility with which wood and water can be obtained. These are indispensable requisites for mining in the rock. Richer veins without wood and water at hand, command a much lower price from this scarcity.

In Grass Valley the veins have uniformly commanded a high price, in consequence of their richness and the abundant supply of wood and water.

By the most recent estimates, there are, at this moment, about fifty companies in actual operation in quartz mining. Very few of them are supplied with the most suitable machinery for successful work. The entire number of companies, embracing those forming as well as already formed, for this branch of mining, is estimated at two hundred. They are almost entirely private companies, and are settled in all parts of the rock regions. Many of them have valuable claims, but are not able to obtain the machinery necessary to work them with, and therefore use only the Mexican *Raster*. A few of them are stock companies, and in some instances their stock can be purchased.

But this branch of mining has been entered upon with much spirit and enterprise. The latest reports represent the foundries of San Francisco, of Sacramento, and of Stockton, to the number of six, as working night and day to cast the machinery for these mills, at prices ranging from four een to twenty cents per pound. This is in addition to all the machinery sent out from the Atlantic States, during the last six months. Those who are most active in these operations, and who are investing large amounts of capital in the mills and mines, are citizens of California, who have had the best opportunities to explore the mineral resources of the State, and are most familiar with the system of mining which is practicable.

There are two important points in the labor of gold mining, wherever it is carried on. The first, is to crush the rock in which the gold is found; and the second, is to extract all the gold from the powder after it is crushed.

To be successful in obtaining the gold, the rock should first be crushed or ground as fine as flour; for the smallest grits may contain particles of the metal. The best machinery in existence for this purpose, when the rock mining was commenced in California, was the Chilian mill; so called from its

extensive use in parts of South America. In July, 1851, the first mill of this kind was erected on the big Mariposa vein. This was the first machinery used in gold mining in California, unless we except the iron pestle and mortar used by hand. It crushed about five hundred pounds of rock in twelve hours, and yielded from two to four hundred dollars in three or four days. The expense of running this kind of mill is considerable, and they are therefore unprofitable in consequence of their inefficiency. To be successful in California, where wages are so high, a large amount of work must be done in a short time.

Georgia stamps were next introduced. But these were made to weigh only about one hundred and fifty to two hundred pounds. These would crush from a ton and a half to five tons in twelve hours. But they did not crush the rock as fine as the Chilian mill, and therefore, pound for pound, would not produce so much gold as the latter.

This light and imperfect machinery was set up under the anticipation that the rock would yield from two to three dollars of gold per pound. The standard yield at present established, and below which mining is not attempted, is two cents of gold to the pound of rock, or forty dollars to the ton.

The next step in the progress of crushing the rock, was to introduce heavy machinery. For it was proved that machinery which would work to a profit under the low wages in the Southern States, would bring ruin upon its proprietors in California. The mill belonging to the Grass Valley Quartz Mining Company was the first to introduce heavy stamps. These weighed seven hundred pounds and upwards, and worked with such success as to obtain at once for the mill the designation of the "Model Mill." It is estimated as crushing from thirty to forty tons of rock per day, none of which yields less than two cents, although the average is much higher. It has thus been a source of immense profit to its owners.

But even with this mill, the rock is not crushed sufficiently fine, to render it practicable to obtain any more than half the gold it contains, with the present amalgamators for separating the gold. It is a trait of American character never to be satisfied with imperfectly doing a thing, where gold is at stake. Several machines have therefore been invented, which, judging by the success of experiments with models, promise to crush to a fine powder at least fifty tons of rock daily. These have been constructed in New York and taken out to California at great expense, by men who belong there, and who have been engaged in rock mining for some years past, and who are the only class who are actually acquainted with the mining resources of California.

The amalgamation process, which consists in intermingling the crushed rock with quicksilver, is very imperfectly performed, chiefly in consequence of the coarseness of the crushed rock. It is estimated that at least one-half of the gold is lost in the present mining operations.

The expense of working a mine has been variously estimated at different periods, according to the rate of wages. The following estimate is furnished by an experienced miner, and it is based, as he informs us upon the actual operations of a mining company:—

"Suppose an establishment working an engine of forty-horse power, and driving thirty stampers, will cost $70,000, an exaggerated value. Suppose the thirty stampers crushed, in twenty-four hours, twelve tons, an amount much underrated.

The number of hands necessary for the above work is twenty, at $5 per day..	$100
One engineer at	10
One assistant engineer	8
One blacksmith	5
One carpenter	5
Six laborers, at various work, at $4 per day	24
Director	16
His assistant	10
Total expenses per diem	$178

Suppose the ore yields only two cents to the pound, or $40 per ton, fifteen tons will give $600. At this rate, the product per month (twenty-six working days) would give	$15,000
Expenses for labor per month (thirty days)	5,340
Balance in favor of the mine	$10,250

Being abundantly sufficient to allow for wear and tear, particularly when we consider, that an engine properly managed, may last six years, and the stampers six months.

"Now let us see the figures when the mine yields five cents to the pound —a yield, which can be, with justice, considered an average product of the California mines.

"Without changing the amount of expenses above presented, we will have as a result of the same mining operations, at the rate of $100 per ton or five cents per pound, per diem, $1,560; or, per month, $30,000. The original monthly expenses as above shown, $5,340, leave us a net balance of $33,660."

Some idea of the results of mining may be obtained from the work of some of the mills. In Grass Valley, where the gold in the rock is very uniform, the mills have probably been more successful than in any other section. The amount of gold obtained, notwithstanding the imperfect machinery for crushing the rock and defective amalgamators, averages from fifty to one hundred dollars per ton; and occasionally, the rich portion of a vein is struck, and the yield for the time is immense. In some instances, as in the case of the mill of the Grass Valley Quartz Mining Company, $3,800 has been obtained in a day. Many other instances might be enumerated.

As the improvement in machinery and the capacity for work has increased, the success has steadily improved. Still more perfect machinery in skillful hands may quadruple it.

The first great embarassment which has happened to mining in California, arose from the high wages of labor, and consequently the enormous expense attending the employment of numerous laborers. No enterprises demanding a large outlay of human force, can be undertaken, unless there are most lucrative returns. Hence it has been unprofitable and ruinous to work many of the mines, previous to the present reduction in the price of labor.

But the imperfection of the machinery greatly augmented this embarassment. Machines which would work to such advantage as to yield rich returns in the gold mines of the Southern States, where labor can be obtained for the lowest wages, were comparatively worthless amid the high wages of California. The process of amalgamation is necessarily performed, in California, on a most extensive scale; and to an equal degree it is imperfectly done. That is, nearly one-half the gold is lost. Thus it has been

necessary to remodel the entire system of work adopted in other countries, to obtain success in California.

There are many other embarassments, such as miners meet everywhere. These it is unnecessary to enumerate.

The business has also to a great extent been commenced by men without experience, and often with a limited capital. In the largest number of such instances, a speedy failure has been the consequence.

The Legislature of California has exercised a degree of intelligence and liberality somewhat unusual in new States. The most favorable laws have been enacted for the organization of companies, to engage either in mining, manufacturing, or other purposes. And while they are liberal on the one hand, on the other, they are sufficiently stringent to protect the rights of every stockholder, and preserve him from unlimited liabilities.

Art. VII.—PIERS AND DOCKS IN THE NORTH RIVER, NEW YORK.

The necessity of doing something for the accommodation of the rapidly increasing Commerce of the port of New York, becomes every day more urgent. It is allowed, on all hands, that the present piers are altogether insufficient, and that they cannot be extended or improved in the ratio of our wants to come.

The proposition brought forward by Mayor Clark, in 1835, to build a pier and basins in the North River, similar to the Liverpool and London docks, is the only plan ever suggested which seems to meet the demand. It is simple and feasible. Nor has any reasonable objection ever been made to it. As to economy, it can be demonstrated that the lots created by it would be worth considerably more than the cost of the whole work, besides affording a handsome income to the city, not only by well-founded estimates, but by the experience of other similar undertakings, such as Central Wharf in Boston. The North River is deep and wide. It has not so strong a tidal current as the East River, and has a more direct access to and from sea. But, as a harbor, it is not so safe or comfortable, especially in winter. It is therefore in the North River that we have the demand for improvement, as well as ample field to carry it out.

London from the Tower to Blackwall, a distance of four miles, is nearly all docks. St. Katherine's, London, East, and West India, on the north side of the Thames, without reckoning minor ones, occupy an extent of four hundred and fifty acres, can accommodate twelve hundred ships, and have warehouse room for 600,000 tons of goods. The Surrey, Commercial, East County, and other docks on the south side cover nearly as much ground. St. Katherine's is one of the smallest, containing twenty-three acres, but taking advantage of the experience of others, all of its arrangements are of the most perfect kind. "It was undertaken by leading merchants in London, to meet the necessity of giving additional accommodation to the great increase of business in the port; to secure a reduction in the rates and charges, which were considered exorbitant at the London docks; no others conveniently situated affording the means of competition; and to bring the port of London more on a level, in point of expense, with the other ports of the

empire; but more particularly with the principal ports of the continent." It was commenced in May, 1827, and opened October, 1828. More than 1,200 houses, in the most central part of the city were taken down, to make room for it. The extent of wharf frontage is 6,004 feet, the warehouses are seven stories high, and ninety-six feet deep. They are erected within a few feet of the margin of the wharves, so that ships can discharge directly into them, and iron-roofed sheds are built upon the jutting piers, affording room for 200,000 tons of merchandise, always housed and under cover. It cost over two million pounds sterling, and, although the charges have been very much reduced, it now pays six to eight per cent interest on its capital.

London docks cover 100 acres, and cost about four million pounds, on which they pay four per cent.

All the docks are walled in: are proof against thieving and smuggling; have an organized system of labor &c.; which gives the utmost facility and dispatch to ships and goods. They have also the privilege of the warehousing system, which is carried to perfection.

Liverpool has thirteen miles of quay frontage in her docks, which she is constantly increasing. She owes all her commercial standing to her unparalleled efforts for the accommodation of ships.

There are also docks in nearly every other port of England, as well as at Havre, Antwerp, &c., on the continent; all in successful operation, yielding a certain and direct benefit, and proved by experience to be indispensable; all agreeing in essential uses and only differing in detail, when experience has suggested, or ingenuity invented, improvements,

In carrying out such a system for the port of New York, we have nothing to do but to copy the models which are before us, so far as they may be consistent with our situation and wants. In one most essential respect, compared with the docks of Europe, that of economy in the construction, the advantage on our side is immense.

They have been dug out of the bowels of great cities, and have destroyed streets, churches, and houses, to make room for artificial ponds of water. We have ample space *in* the water. We shall not find it necessary to injure any man's property in order to create more room. They are built with solid water-tight walls, and expensive lock-gates, whose deep foundations are laid with coffer-dams and diving-bells. We have no necessity for keeping the water out. A simple embankment of stone and piles will make an all-sufficient foundation, requiring no expensive masonry and dispensing with lock-gates entirely. They are situated where there is great rise and fall of tide. Some of them can only be entered at high water, and have shoals at their entrances which require constant dredging to keep them clear. We have deep water and but little tide, can go in and out at all times, and have no shoals to remove or guard against.

The plan is to construct a pier in the North River, commencing below Rector-street, at about 1,000 feet from West-street, and running northward, parallel with West-street, wide enough for a range of warehouses and the necessary streets, and connected at intervals with the main city by sets of drawbridges; thus forming basins which will combine every advantage of the London and Liverpool docks, and capable of being increased to any required extent. The mode of construction alluded to, as being far more simple and economical than our models, slightly differs from that of the Plymouth and Delaware breakwaters, which consist of stone loosely thrown in, nearly making its own slope at the sides, with a superstructure of masonry.

The difference would consist in using a great number of piles in the pier, for the better foundation of warehouses and sea-walls, and in the inferior materials which might be made use of in the filling up.

The sea-wall, supposed to have its foundation on piles at the edge of the embankment at low water mark, would be the bound of the street-way; or, as at St. Katherine's dock, the wall of the warehouses. In either case, a platform of wood resting on piles, or a wharf of cobwork, would be extended out into water deep enough for ships to lie against, clear of the slope of the embankment. The passages through the connecting piers, should be crossed by double sets of drawbridges in the manner of lock-gates, so that the communication would not be interrupted while ships were passing through. The connecting piers should also be in part constructed of permanent bridges, to allow free course for the tide, as well as for market boats, lighters, &c., to pass under.

In the *alignement* proposed, the water off Rector-street is 60 feet deep, off Canal-street it is 50 feet. The bottom is regular, consisting of hard gravel, under a slight stratum of mud. Towards Castle Garden, the soundings are shoaler, and the bottom is partly composed of rocky boulders. Towards the Jersy shore, the depth decreases gradually, with clay bottom, and towards the piers, soft mud, being the wash of the city. The tide rises and falls six feet. It runs ordinarily two, and in the spring or freshets three knots an hour. A southerly wind sometimes causes chafing among the vessels at the piers, and they are badly exposed to the northwest winds of winter, which drive the ice into the slips, and otherwise cause no little damage. It is the fresh water ice only, brought down by the river, that is troublesome. This often jams in the East River, and causes more trouble there, on account of the more rapid tide. This could be easily boomed out of the proposed basins, so as to cause no trouble whatever. Salt water ice never forms hard enough in New York harbor to do damage.

The Plymouth breakwater lies far out from the shore, in the most exposed situation, so that an extraordinary strength is required to make it permanent. It lies in 25 to 50 feet of water at low water. The tide rises 18 feet and the work is carried up seven or eight feet above high water mark. The wall is 1,700 yards long, and 40 feet wide at top, with lighthouses at each end. Below water it is formed of rough stones, weighing two to ten tons each. These, at first, were placed with some care to insure them lying close together. But much of this care was wasted. It was found that a mixture of small and large stones, thrown in promiscuously made more solid work. The inclination of the base is about three horizontal to one perpendicular, outside, and three to two inside. Above water it was intended to leave the wall rough, but the gale of November, 1824, having displaced some parts of the work, it was afterwards finished with large blocks of limestone and granite, dovetailed and clamped together. No diving bell or other machine was used to construct the work under water. The largest stones were placed on the outside, and were more spread, as the effect of storms during the progress of the work showed the necessity of a broader base. Since 1824, no part of it has been deranged; it becomes stronger every year, from the washing in of sand and the accumulation of shellfish and seaweeds. Its efficiency and permanence is beyond all question.

The breakwater at Cherbourg, lies in 100 feet water, on rocky bottom. It was at first attempted to be built by means of an open caisson of cob-

work. This gave way, and it was rebuilt after the same plan as that of Plymouth.

The breakwater in Delaware Bay is also constructed in the same manner, most of the stone of which it is composed came from the Palisades. It lies on a sandy foundation, and settled a foot, or more, the first year.

The work on the Rip Raps, being composed of a soft sandstone, settled and washed away to some extent, and was not sufficiently solid to build upon for several years.

The northwest beacon, on the Romer Shoal in New York Bay, was built on a foundation formed by an open caisson, and shows no sign of giving way. A similar one, attempted on Flynn's Knoll failed, leaving a dangerous heap of stones to make wrecks upon.

The piers of Blackfriars Bridge were constructed dry, in tight caissons, which were afterwards sunk to their places, the bottom being previously prepared. They stood, apparently without change, for many years, until the removal of the old London Bridge altered the current of the river, and caused them to settle several feet. They have since been repaired by a coffer-dam.

Sea-walls have been constructed in various other ways. But where great strength and solidity are required, coffer-dams have been always considered as the only sure method. The Harlem High Bridge, and the Potomac Aqueduct, in our own country are examples—both attended with enormous expense, and the latter with numerous accidents. Except when solid ledge is found, wooden piles are universally used as a foundation to build upon. Imbedded in the soil, they are indestructible. But exposed in salt water, especially in warm climates, they are soon destroyed by the worm, (*teredo navalis.*) A partial defense from this enemy my be secured by saturating the piles with oil of tar, or by charring the outside. In the West Indies they often cover them with copper or zinc. The palmetto of the south, and some of the East India woods are said to resist the worm.

Iron piles have been used in England with indifferent success; an iron pile will not bear driving like a wooden one. It is very apt to break or crack under the heavy blows which are necessary to bring it down to its place.

Some few beacons formed on Iron screw piles, in England, are standing; but many more have given way. One on this plan has lately been built on the Romer shoal; time only can test it.

A method lately discovered of sinking large iron cylinders by atmospheric pressure, which is described in Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine for April, 1851, bids fair to supersede most of the former expensive methods of building piers for bridges and sea-walls, especially in deep water and on uncertain bottoms. The piers for the railway bridges at Huntingdon and Rochester are built in this manner, with perfect success. The cylinders are six to ten feet in diameter, filled in with solid masonry. They have not cost altogether so much as the coffer-dams alone would have cost, to prepare to build them in the usual way. An experimental cylinder was driven sixty-five feet into the Goodwin Sands. Afterwards a beacon was constructed, standing upon five such cylinders, each two-feet-and-a-half in diameter, and sunk thirty-two feet. This beacon, after standing firm about two months, suddenly disappeared, leaving not a vestige of superstructure or foundation.

In some parts of the proposed work, such as the exposed pier heads and abutments of the bridges, a more thorough sea-wall, which would not be likely to get out of repair very soon, might be necessary. It might also be

the best economy to construct all the bulkheads of stone, in the first place, instead of using wooden piles or cobwork.

A pier built as proposed, 7,800 feet long (which is the distance between Morris and Canal-street,) and 200 feet wide at top, with three connecting piers at intervals, would form two close and two open basins, covering in all about 140 acres. It would give quay berths for nearly 300 vessels, with outside berths for a greater number. Leaving 600 feet for cross streets, passage ways for ships, and sites for the necessary offices &c., it would create on the main pier, 288 lots of 25 by 100 feet, with two fronts, which would be equally as valuable as the best lots in South or West Streets. The cost of the rough embankment, from calculation of its cubic contents, at a fair and usual price for such work, would not exceed two millions of dollars. A well founded estimate for piles, timber, plank, masonry, bridges, labor, and all other expenses and materials for the superstructure, amount to another million. Allowing 500,000 more for contingences, the whole cost would be three-millions-and-a-half of dollars, with the pier completely finished up to the foundations of the warehouses. This would be equal to $12,150 per lot. The cost would be greater in proportion at the first part of the work, until one connecting pier could be brought into use, after which every succeeding cubic foot would cost less. It would be useful as a breakwater, as soon as the first stone of the embankment should rise above water; and it would begin to pay, as a receptacle for bulky and heavy articles, before a building could be erected upon it. It would not stop at Canal-street, but be gradually extended up the river; and, should the wants of Commerce require it, another similar pier could be constructed outside of it, and still leave ample room in the river.

In the foregoing calculation no account is made of the lots formed, or value increased on the city side of the basins. The present slips may remain as they are, fated, however, like their predecessors, to be filled up and made into new blocks and streets. They would be better filled up, as they are advantagous in room and dispatch at a straight bulkhead, which more than make up for apparent increase of berths as a narrow quay. A straight bulkhead would also assist the sewerage of the city, and do away with all necessity for dredging.

The injury to the city of New York, caused by the inconveniences of the port, and consequent extraordinary loss of time and expenses of ships, if suffered to go on as it has done, increasing every day, without proposition of adoption of any improvement, may be deeper than is now imagined; and the remedy may come too late. Bristol was ruined by the charges of its port, and London did not dream of a competitor, in collecting a tax upon all the Commerce of the world, until Liverpool built docks.

Let New York profit by their example.

Art. VIII.—THE FIRE ANNIHILATOR.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., *Editor Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

SIR:—In order to form a correct opinion respecting the efficacy of the Fire Annihilator, it may be well to consider that all ordinary fire is dependant on the presence of two adventitious causes in addition to that of the combustible or oxydizable matter called fuel. The adventitious causes are

heat, and atmospheric oxygen, which forms a little more than a fifth of the air. Whatever removes the heat, or prevents the access of the oxygen, will extinguish fire. A sufficient supply of water does both; it at once interferes with the access of oxygen, and carries off the heat in the resulting steam or vapor formed. Every cubic inch of water vaporized, carries off as much heat as would raise ten cubic inches, 100 degrees of Fahrenheit.

The wood or other matter which forms the fuel of a fire in the burning of houses is almost all resolved into steam and carbonic acid; and as these are incapable of supporting combustion, it follows that when they are retained about the fuel combustion must cease. But the gaseous matter in and above the fire, being made specifically lighter by the calorific expansion, are displaced by the heavier air outside, and hence a draught by which the gas and steam are supplanted by fresh air. Could this draught be prevented, every fire would be arrested by its own fumes, as the flame of a candle is extinguished when much below the mouth of the candlestick socket. But it is generally understood that an aperture opened in the socket, beneath the flame, would prevent its extinguishment.

When a brick or stone house is burning down within its walls, were there no windows, doors, or other aperture, and were the depth in proportion to the width as great as in the candlestick socket, it might go out of itself, excepting that the heated mass is so great and the walls such poor conductors of heat that this attribute cannot be removed as it is by the material of the socket. It is well known that the fire may continue to exist in burnt districts for many months, with very little, if any, access of air.

It will be perceived, also, that the carbonic acid and steam into which organic combustibles are resolved, would be as capable of extinguishing flame as any gas whatever, since none has in this respect any other than the negative power of displacing atmospheric oxygen. No gas nor fume can destroy the oxydizability or combustibility of fuel; so that, if kept red-hot, it will not, on the readmission of air, burn again.

The greater weight of the fumes given out by the materials employed in the annihilator, may be considered as an advantage; but the carbonic acid generated by the combustion is about 50 per cent heavier than air. Hence the only service which the process of the annihilator can render, is, to add to the quantity of inert gaseous matter present, and thus to render the access of air more difficult. But where there is a draught sufficient to carry off the steam and carbonic acid generated by combustion, it must be competent to carry up the gases or fumes given out by the annihilator; and consequently it is to be inferred, that in houses where a draft cannot be prevented the instrument will fail.

There would be a greater chance of success in the extinguishment of fire, by the means in point, on board of ships: which being constructed so as to exclude water from the hold, may be closed so as to prevent the access of air to a fire situated therein.

But still, the proposed remedy does *not provide any means of removing heat;* so that when any considerable mass of ignited matter is once created, it were difficult to extinguish it entirely by depriving it of oxygen.

It may be well to state, that common salt, or sal ammoniac, the one volatile at a low red heat, the other below incandescence, are well suited to produce atmospheres unfavorable to combustion or oxydation. The employment of sal ammoniac in soldering, is due to this capability. Doubtless, mixtures of the ingredients of gunpowder, in some proportion with sal ammoniac, or

common salt, would form a self-acting mass, which without exploding would give forth nitrogen, carbonic acid, sulphurous acid, and vapors of the salts mentioned, and thus prevent fire from burning, if not excited by a draught of air carrying off those obstacles to the access of oxygen. On shipboard, the sulphur were better omitted, as it might be offensive to smell and respiration.

When soot in a chimney flue is in a state of conflagration, if a sufficiency of common salt be thrown upon the hearth fire—the draught being simultaneously checked by a chimney-board—the saline vapor will arrest the combustion.

Two parts of sulphate of iron and one of chloride of sodium, in aqueous solution, nearly saturated, thrown upon a fire, should be eminently efficacious in quenching it: First, in consequence of the resulting vapor of the chloride of iron, and gaseous sulphurous acid; secondly, because the soda evolved, would form, with the silex of the fuel, a vitreous film interposing between the carbon and oxygen.

Casks filled with such a solution, might be thrown into a house on fire by means of a mortar or the catapulta of ancient warfare.

Such solutions might be duly projected by an instrument which I have contrived—which I call the gas ram: in which the shock arising from the explosion of a gaseous mixture, is substituted for that produced by stopping suddenly a current of water.

Respectfully yours,

ROBERT HARE.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT ON A POLICY OF FIRE INSURANCE.

In the Circuit Court, Chicago, Illinois. John R. Case *vs.* Hartford Fire Insurance Company. Opinion of the Court, by Trumbull, Justice.

This was an action of assumpsit brought by Case against the Hartford Fire Insurance Company, on a policy insuring the plaintiff against loss or damage by fire to the amount of $3,000, on his stock of goods in brick store No. 88 Lake-street, Chicago.

By the terms of the policy, the company agreed to make good to Case, all such immediate loss or damage, not exceeding the amount insured, as should happen by fire from October 6th, 1849, to October 6th, 1850.

Annexed to the policy, and forming part of it, is the following condition: "In case of fire, or loss or damage thereby, or exposure to loss or damage thereby, it shall be the duty of the insured to use all *possible* diligence in saving and preserving the property, and if they shall fail so to do, this company shall not be held answerable to make good the loss and damage sustained in consequence of such neglect. And it is mutually understood, that there can be no abandonment to the insurer, of the subject insured."

The testimony shows that the building containing the goods, was, what is called in Chicago, a fire-proof building, though not strictly so; that on the evening of the 10th of August, 1850, the buildings in the rear of the Mansion House, a large wooden building east of and immediately adjoining the store of the plaintiff, took fire; that the rear of the Mansion House was burned out, and it seemed almost impossible at one time, with the greatest exertions of the fire department, to save the main building; that the fire was a very hot one, the flames at times extending quite over and enveloping at least half the store of the

plaintiff; that at one stage of the fire, the firemen raised their hose to the top of plaintiff's store and threw water from them upon the burning buildings; that water was also thrown on the store, and came down into the building in considerable quantities; that the store itself was filled with heated air and smoke, and the doors ordered to be thrown open by the fire department, so as to allow the hose to pass through to the rear, but the order was countermanded while the hose was being introduced, for the purpose of taking it to another point; that the wind at the time was from an easterly direction, and had the main building of the Mansion House burned, no exertions of the fire department could have saved plaintiff's store from destruction, nor could the goods have been removed if the fire had caught in front; that a portion of the goods were damaged by the water and smoke, and most of them removed across the street to other buildings about the time the store doors were thrown open; that the fire, after raging some half hour, was subdued without burning the main building of the Mansion House, or any portion of the plaintiff's store, though the heat was so great as to crack many of the glass in the windows and scorch the window frames through the iron shutters, also as to burn off the paint on the roof, and that the damage to the goods, from smoke, water, &c., was appraised at $64 57.

The plaintiff also offered to prove the amount of goods he had on hand in the month of April, preceding the fire, by the bills of purchase, books of account, and clerks, and then to show the amount of purchases since that time, also the amount of sales, and the inventory taken immediately after the fire, to ascertain the amount of goods lost by the removal. All this evidence was objected to by the defendant and excluded by the Court, to which decision the plaintiff at the time excepted. The jury returned a verdict of $69 17 for the plaintiff.

The only point in the case, arises upon the refusal of the Circuit Court to admit the evidence tending to show that some of the goods had been lost in the removal occasioned by the fire; and this raises the question, whether the insurers are liable for the loss of goods resulting from their removal under the particular circumstances of this case. On the behalf of the defendant it is insisted, that the policy insures only against *immediate loss or damage by fire;* and that there can be no fire without ignition.

Such is the law as stated in 2 Greanleaf, Ev. p 405. The author says: "The proof of loss must show an *actual ignition by fire:* damage by heat alone without actual ignition, not being covered by the policy"; and he refers to the case of Austin *vs.* Drew, reported in 4 Campb. 360, and 6 Taunt. 436, as his authority. By referring to that case, it will be seen that it does not support the position. The case was this: The premises insured were used as a manufactory, and were heated by a stove on the ground floor. A flue went from the stove through each story, seven or eight in number, to the top of the building. There was a register in the flue, with an aperture into the rooms, whereby more or less heat might be introduced at pleasure. One morning the fire being lighted as usual below, the servant whose duty it was to open the register in the upper story, forgot to do so. The consequence was, that the smoke and heat were completely interdicted in their progress through the flue, and came into the rooms doing some damage, but there never was more fire than was necessary to carry on the business of the manufactory, and the flames never got beyond the flue. Gibbs, C. J. said, "Here was no fire except in the stove and the flue as there ought to have been, and the loss was occasioned by the confinement of heat. Had the fire been brought out of the flue, and anything had been burnt, the company would have been liable. But can this be said, where the fire never was at all excessive, and was always confined within its proper limits? This is not a fire within the meaning of the policy, nor a loss for which the company undertake. They might as well be sued for damage done to drawing-room furniture by a smoky chimney." The principle upon which this case turned, was that there had been no fire except in the usual and proper place where a fire ought to have been, and that the parties never contemplated insuring against a loss occasioned by the ordinary fire kept up in the stove; but had the same injury resulted from the burning of an adjoining house, or from heat proceeding from any other than

the ordinary fires in the building, the decision would have been very different. Suppose some of the wares and merchandise of the plaintiff in this case, as lead pipe for instance, had been of a fusible character, and that had been melted by the heat from the burning of the adjoining building, would it be pretended for a moment that he could not recover for the damage, because the articles were not actually ignited? Had the store actually burned down, it no doubt contained many articles which the fire would have ruined, and yet were not susceptible of ignition. The idea that there can be no fire, without actual ignition, is so unreasonable to my mind, that but for the respectable authorities that have been vouched for its position, I should not have thought it worthy a moment's consideration.

The case of Hillier *vs.* A. M. Insurance Co., 3 Barr, 470, is also relied upon by the defendant. The Court in that case do say, that where the peril insured against, "is fire, the instrument of destruction must be fire;" but the case itself is a very different one from this. In that case, the building from which the goods were removed, was not touched by the fire, but the fourth house from it was at one time on fire; and it is stated that the goods were not injured by endeavors to extinguish the fire, or save them from it, but in the removal of them under an *apprehension* that they might be reached by the flames which had caught one of the houses in the same block.

The Court moreover intimate in that very case, that had the building containing the goods been touched by fire, or the goods injured in their removal while it was on fire, or in efforts to put out the fire, the loss would have been within the policy, and yet how could this be if the instrument of destruction must be fire itself. Surely an injury to goods by water thrown to extinguish a fire, would not be an injury to the goods by actual ignition, and yet no case can be found, where an insurance against damage by *fire* has been held not to extend to such a case.

The rule undoubtedly is, that insurers are liable only for direct and not for remote and consequential losses occasioned by any peril in the policy. But what damage is direct, and what consequential, is often a difficult question to determine.

It is said, in 1 Philips on Insurance, 690, that "a loss comes under a particular risk out, merely when it is a consequence that follows the actual occurring of the risk, but when it can be fairly attributed to the risk, and is occasioned by it, or arises directly on account of it."

The Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of Peters *vs.* Warren Insurance Co., 14 Peters, 108, lay down this rule, that "whenever the thing insured becomes by law chargeable with any expense, contribution, or loss, in consequence of a particular peril, the law treats that peril, for all practicable purposes, as the proximate cause of such expense, contribution, or loss," and the same case decides, that whatever loss arises as a natural or necessary consequence of the peril insured against, is within the policy.

The cases are numerous, in which recoveries have been had on policies insuring against loss by fire, when the injury has not resulted from actual burning. Waters *vs.* Merchants' Louisville Insurance Co.; 11 Peters, 224; the City Fire Insurance Co. *vs.* Coolies; 21 Wend. 367; Pentz *vs.* Receiver Etna Fire Insurance Co.; 9 Page, 568.

The policy in this case, required the plaintiff in case of exposure to loss or damage by fire, to use all possible diligence to preserve his goods, and provided, in case of his failure to do so, that the company should not be answerable for any loss sustained in consequence of such neglect.

Suppose the front of the Mansion House had taken fire, as there was every probability at one time it would, and it had become impossible afterwards to remove plaintiff's goods, and they had been destroyed, would the Insurance Company, under such circumstances, have been liable for their loss, it clearly appearing that the plaintiff neglected to remove them at the time when it could have been done safely, and the danger of their destruction by fire was imminent. The circumstances as they existed at the time the removal was made, must determine the necessity for it; and whatever loss or damage the plaintiff necessarily sus-

tained by the removal of the property insured, when the danger of its destruction by fire was so direct and immediate, that a failure to have made the removal while he had the power, would have been gross negligence on his part, he is entitled to recover in this action.

The fire, under such circumstances, may, in a just sense, be regarded as the proximate cause of the loss.

The evidence offered and excluded, was somewhat loose, and may not, of itself, have been very satisfactory to the jury if admitted; but, in connection with other testimony, it may have been very important: and we think, under the circumstances of this case, should have been permitted to go to the jury.

It is not, however, for every loss arising from the removal of goods, to save them from burning, that the company would be liable. Goods may be carelessly removed and so wantonly and unnecessarily exposed, as to relieve the company from all liability on account of their injury or loss.

An objection has been urged to the recovery for the loss of goods in this case, for the want of a count in the declaration, specially alleging such loss by removal.

In the view taken of the case such a count was unnecessary, as if a recovery can be had for the loss at all, it must be on the ground that it is to be treated, in a practicable point of view, as the natural or necessary consequence of the fire itself. Judgment reversed and cause remanded.

VALUE OF RECEIPTS—ACTION UPON A BILL OF LADING.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, Mass. Asa Jacobs, *et al. vs.* Charles H. G. Chapin, *et al.*, owners of the ship John W. White.

This was an action brought by the plaintiffs against the owners of the ship John W. White, for an alleged non-delivery of two barrels of pork. It was admitted by the defendants that the plaintiffs shipped one hundred barrels of lard, and three hundred barrels of pork, on board the John W. White, at New Orleans, and that the defendants agreed to deliver the same to the plaintiffs, in Boston. It was admitted by the plaintiffs that they had received the one hundred barrels of lard and two hundred and ninety-eight barrels of the pork, but denied that they had ever received the balance. Upon this point, the parties joined issue. The defendants put in the ship's receipt-book, from which it appeared that the plaintiff's truckman had receipted for the whole three hundred barrels; they also put in the evidence of the mate of the vessel, who testified that he kept the receipt-book, and filled out the receipts, that they were all correct, that he delivered the whole three hundred barrels himself, that on the 28th of February last, he delivered twenty-two barrels, as appeared in the receipt, and that he remembered counting every barrel delivered on that day.

The plaintiffs put in the evidence of their clerk, who testified that he received all the pork that was received from the John W. White, that only two hundred and ninety-eight barrels were received at the various store-houses. Also of the head-truckman, who testified that it appeared from the returns of his men, that only two hundred and ninety-eight barrels were ever trucked from the John W. White to the plaintiffs'. In regard to the 28th of February, he testified that only twenty barrels were trucked on that day. His three men all corroborated this statement, and testified that they all loaded and went together from the wharf to the store-house. The plaintiffs' clerk testified that only twenty barrels were received at the store that day. It further appeared in evidence, that after the cargo had been delivered, the defendants stored two barrels of pork which came in this vessel on Battery wharf, and afterwards removed them; and it did not appear in evidence that any one had claimed those barrels except the plaintiffs.

Upon this evidence, Merrick, J. instructed the jury that though great weight should be given to a written receipt, especially when supported by the oath of the person who delivered the property, yet it was always liable to be rebutted and overthrown; and that it was for the jury to decide, whether in this case the plaintiffs' evidence had been sufficient for that purpose.

The jury returned a verdict for plaintiffs, and assessed damages $33 73.

George T. Angell appeared for the plaintiffs, and William Brigham for the defendants.

LANDLORD AND TENANT.

In the Supreme Court, State of New-York, July 17, 1852. The Mayor, &c. of New-York City against D. P. Campbell and another.

[The Act of May 13, 1846, requiring the landlord to give fifteen days' notice in writing of his intention to re-enter upon default in the payment of rent, is not binding upon contracts executed before the passage of the act, in which a different notice is agreed upon.]

At the time that the contract which gave the plaintiffs the right to re-enter for non-payment of rent, was entered into, there was no term restricting the right of immediate entry. It is contended, however, that inasmuch as the act of May 13, 1846, (Laws 1846, p. 369), requires that fifteen days' notice of an intention to re-enter shall be given in writing after default in the payment of rent, and as no such notice is alleged in the complaint, it is bad on demurrer.

On the other hand, it is contended that the plaintiffs are not bound by any such law, as it varies the contract which was entered into between the original parties. Upon this the Court gave the following opinion:—

It is not always easy to distinguish between a law which merely affects the remedy, and one which impairs the substantial right of the parties.

In the case of Bronson *vs.* Kinsie, (1 How., 311), it was held that a State law passed subsequently to the execution of a mortgage, which declared that the equitable estate of the mortgagor should not be extinguished for twelve months after a sale under a decree in chancery, was in violation of that provision of the Constitution of the United States which prohibits a State from passing a law impairing the obligation of contracts.

In the case of McCracken *vs.* Hayward, (2 How. 608), it was held that a State law providing that a sale should not be made of property levied upon under an execution, unless it brought two-thirds of its value according to the opinion of three householders, was unconstitutional and void. In the last case, the Court say, if the State can prohibit the sale for less than two-thirds, it may also for less than the whole appraised value.

In the present case, the contract gave the right to re-enter, in case the whole or any part of the rent of the premises should be unpaid for the period of ten days after any day on which the same ought to be paid. By the law of 1846, this right to re-enter is postponed for the period of fifteen days, and in addition, a notice in writing of an intention to re-enter, is required to be given. If the State can pass a law requiring a notice of fifteen days, why can it not pass one requiring a notice of fifteen years? The reasoning of the Court in the case of McCracken *vs.* Hayward, is strictly applicable in this case.

The demurrer is overruled, with leave to defendants to answer in twenty days, on payment of costs.

PARTNERSHIP LIABILITY.

In the County Court, Liverpool, England, July, 1852, Mr. Pollock delivered a judgment with respect to partnership liability, of great importance.

An action had been brought by a creditor of the late firm of Messrs. Doran & Wilson, of this town, against Mr. Wilson alone, for £32 15s. 10d., due by the firm to the plaintiff, Mr. Hume. The defendant pleaded, that the plaintiff had brought an action on a bill of exchange for £252 6s. 8d. against Doran & Wilson, and it was contended that the present claim was included in the former action. This, however, proved not to be the fact. The second ground of defense, which was the most important, was, that in the month of September last, Mr. Doran made an assignment for the benefit of his creditors, and the plaintiff came in under the assignment, which purported to be not only for the benefit of the separate creditors of Doran, but also for the creditors of Doran & Wilson, and the several creditors, including the plaintiff, executed the deed and received the

composition, entering into a covenant not to sue Mr. Doran for any of the debts of the firm. Mr. Wilson had not assigned over. An action was brought by the plaintiff to recover the debt from him. The learned Judge quoted the case of Hutton *vs.* Eyre, in which it was held that although a release to one portion was generally a release to all, yet a covenant not to sue one of several partners will not operate as a release to the others. The verdict must, therefore, be for the plaintiff. In answer to a remark by Mr. Hime, the learned Judge said, he was desirous that the matter should have been put in a train for the consideration of the Superior Court, but he could not see how it could be done.

LIABILITY OF INSURANCE COMPANIES—STATUTE OF FRAUDS.

In Circuit Court, New York, January 22, 1852; before Judge Edmonds. The Trustees of the First Baptist Church, in Brooklyn, and John B. Durbrow, Administrator, &c., *against* the Brooklyn Fire Insurance Company.

This was an action to recover upon an insurance.

The plaintiffs are Trustees of the First Baptist Church in Brooklyn, as also the administrators of Ann Fuller, dec'd. The insurance was effected on the church 1st July, 1846, for $5,000, for a premium of $25, which premium was not paid when effecting the insurance, but on 23d Feb. following, nor was the policy delivered until 9th Aug., 1846. That on 9th Aug., 1846, the policy was assigned to Ann Fuller (now deceased) as collateral security for a loan to the church.

The plaintiff Durbrow is her administrator. The policy was renewed to 21st July, 1847, by certificate dated 21st July, 1846. This certificate was not delivered until September, 1847, some time after, nor the premium paid; but the renewal was made pursuant to an understanding, as plaintiffs allege, between the trustees and the defendants, that such policy should be renewed from time to time without further notice, until one party or the other should give notice of an intention to discontinue the renewal, and it was understood, that the trustees, until such notice was given, should be bound to pay the premium of insurance, and the defendants be bound to make the renewal. That on 21st July, 1847, the policy was similarly renewed for $30 instead of $25. That $25 thereof was paid on 1st September, 1847, with promise to pay the additional $5. That plaintiffs received no notice of discontinuance of the agreement; that the plaintiffs considered they had renewed the insurance to July 21, 1849, and that it was subsisting. The church was burnt on 10th September, 1848; loss thereon, more than $5,000. Plaintiffs allege that the usage of insurance companies was to keep continuing risks similar to this; that in addition to such usage, the trustees and defendants, by their antecedent agreement and the course of dealing between the parties, had agreed to renew said certificate. That while the church was burning, one of the trustees and the principal clerk of defendants, in conversation, mutually acknowledged there was a pending insurance for $5,000 on the church. That defendants after the fire, admitted their liability. Plaintiffs claim judgment for $5,000 with interest from 16th November, 1848.

The defence is, that the notice of expiration of the policy, on or about 21st of July, 1846, was given to Mr. Lewis, treasurer of the trustees. That thereupon he wished to renew, and on his request the renewal was made; but not on the agreement alleged. That about the expiration of the first renewal, they also notified the trustees. That on the morning of the day the policy would expire, Mr. Ellsworth, the president of the company, called on the treasurer and asked whether he wished the policy renewed. He said, yes, but remarked the premium was too high, that he would see about it, and call at the insurance office in a few days. He did call; said he wanted it insured, and two months' credit for the premium. That the defendants agreed thereto. That the treasurer paid the $25, but never paid the balance, and never meant to do so. That the last year the policy was not renewed; there was no request to that effect, although notice of its expiration was given.

This cause came on for trial on 16th January, 1852. On opening the case, counsel for defendants moved to dismiss the complaint, on the ground that a ver-

bal contract is not binding on the company, and not warranted by their charter, and cited 16 Ohio Rep. 148; 2 Con. 168; 2 Mass. 196; 1 Duer, sec. 9, 145; 1 Phil. Ins. 8. Counsel for plaintiffs opposed the motion, and cited 16 Maine, 439; 3 Demo. 25; 4 Sandf. Ch. R. 408, and other authorities.

The court denied the motion, and said, it did not think the charter of the company required all contracts to be in writing; he assumed that the original insurance must be in writing. The question to decide, is, whether that contract can be extended or continued by parol. He thought it could. It was so by the general law, and there was nothing in the policy to prevent such extension and continuance.

The plaintiff proved by Mr. Lewis, treasurer of the church, that in July, 1846, it had been agreed between him and the president of the company, that the church should be kept insured; and that from time to time, as often as the insurance should expire, the company should send certificates of renewal, and the church should pay the premiums. That in pursuance of that arrangement, the company did send renewals in 1846 and 1847; that they expected a renewal in 1848, and were ready to pay their premium.

Mr. Ellsworth, the president of the company, denied having made such agreement, though he admitted he took the renewals on both occasions, and that on the last occasion Mr. Lewis told him he wanted the church always insured.

Mr. Stevens, the secretary of the company, and Mr. Beers their surveyor, also testified that such an agreement had not been made in this case to their knowledge, though they admitted such agreements had often been made by the company, but insisted that when made they were entered on the books, and notices of expiration were not delivered to the parties as their insurances were running out.

The plaintiffs, however, showed, that in this respect the officers of the company were mistaken, by examining persons with whom such arrangements were admitted to have been made; and who testified that notices of expiration were regularly sent to them, and the agreements were not entered upon the books.

The testimony, which is voluminous, being closed on both sides, counsel for defendants renewed his motion to dismiss complaint, and cited 2 Barb. Ch. 221; 11 East. 142; 3 Hill, 129; 1 Demo. 162; 13 Wend. 307; contending the agreement to continue the risk was void by the statute of frauds, it not being in writing. The court denied the motion.

The Judge charged the jury, that this is an action to enforce an alleged agreement to give renewal from July 21, 1848, to July 21, 1849. This action could not formerly be brought before a court and jury. Before the code, the plaintiffs would have been obliged to go into a court of chancery, to compel the company to deliver the certificate of renewal, and afterwards sue in a court of law upon the certificate of renewal, but now under the code this can all be done in one suit. The first objection of defendants in this action, was, that the plaintiffs could not recover on that agreement, it not being in writing. I ruled then, and now say, that if the plaintiffs have proved an agreement to renew this policy, they are entitled to recover. It is difficult to decide how far the statute of frauds affects this contract. The contract, if proved, doubtless was this; in legal effect a contract to renew this policy each year, as the former expired, &c.

The plaintiffs insist that by the course of dealing, and the usage of the company, the contract was renewed each year. I think that a usage is not proved, sufficient to sustain a contract, and therefore, as a matter of law, I charge that they have not shown such a usage as entitles them to recover. Then as to the admission of defendants' officers, they are not the best kind of testimony. The next point is, whether the course of dealing between the parties made a contract, and unless you believe Lewis the treasurer had the conversations with Ellsworth, as alleged, you cannot find a contract; but if you believe the conversations with Lewis, and that the certificates were given in consequene of it, and that the last was given after 21st July, 1847, then the contract is made out. Exceptions taken.

The jury returned a verdict for plaintiffs, for $6,082 36.

COLLISION—ABANDONMENT—SALVAGE.

In the British Admiralty Court, June 9, 1852. The Pickwick—Derelict.

The Pickwick, a bark bound from Liverpool to Valparaiso, came into collision with the Chimera shortly after leaving port, and sustained so much damage that her crew abandoned her. On the following morning, the 14th of February, the schooner Agnes, bound from Glasgow to Runcorn, fell in with her about four miles from the Calf of Man, drifting, as she alleged, toward the rocks. She turned her head, took her in tow, and proceeded towards Liverpool, for which the wind was fair. Having been in possession about half an hour, the steam tug President came up, and as the schooner asserted, forcibly dispossessed her. A second action was entered by Messrs. Potter & Co. against Messrs. Rawson & Co., who had chartered the steamer to go out in search of the bark, by Capt. Downward who went out to conduct the service, and also by the master and crew on board. It was denied on their behalf, that they had forcibly taken the bark from the schooner; on the contrary, they alleged the schooner was, from her size, totally incapable of completing the service, in addition to which they were armed with authority from the owners to take possession of her. On the part of the owners it was contended that the services of the schooner were of no avail, and that the steamer having been chartered by persons who had an interest in part of the property, they could make no legal claim. The value of the property salved, was £32,900.

The Queen's Advocate and Mr. Deane appeared for the schooner; Dr. Robinson and Dr. Bayford for the steamer; and Dr. Adams and Dr. Twiss for the owners.

The learned Judge considered that under the circumstances the steamer was perfectly justified in interfering. He allotted to the schooner £700, and to the steamer £2,000.

ACTION TO RECOVER AGAINST THE ALLEGED ACCEPTANCE OF A DRAFT.

In Supreme Court, New York, March 27, 1852; before Justice Roosevelt. Charles Denison, President North River Bank *against* William H. Sackett.

This suit was commenced by the plaintiff in January, 1850, to recover against the defendant as the alleged acceptor of a draft for $4,500, drawn by E. B. Sackett, dated 12th October, 1849. The defendant denied such acceptance, and presented the question of acceptance or non-acceptance for trial. The trial came on March 27th, 1851, before Justice Edwards and a jury.

On that case, the jury found a verdict in favor of the plaintiff. The defendant thereupon moved before Justice Roosevelt, at special term, upon a case and affidavits of newly discovered evidence, for a new trial; and the Judge in deciding the motion, gave the following opinion:—

Roosevelt J.—There is no evidence that the defendant, William H. Sackett, had the slightest interest in the acceptance on which the case is brought, or in that of which it is a part of renewal. It is admitted, besides, that the signature in both cases was not his handwriting, but that of another person of the same name.

He is sought to be charged then, not on account of any benefit accrued to him, nor on account of any action done by him, but solely on the ground of an alleged admission, said to have been made in a conversation with the late president of the bank, that the first signature was his handwriting, when in point of fact, and confessedly, it was not.

At this conversation, too, no other person was present; and the officer of the bank was its sole witness and interpreter. And even he does not pretend to any intimate or reliable acquaintance with either of the two William H. Sacketts.

Independently of the extremely dangerous character, in all cases, of such one-sided and dubious testimony, there are intrinsic difficulties in the present instance in the chronology of the statements of this witness, taken in connection with the contradictory versions of other witnesses, which show, that in point of accuracy it is not to be depended upon. And especially would it be most unjust to make such testimony the ground—the sole ground—of charging a party, to the extent of thousands, with a debt not his own.

the country, when the change in the nominal value of this description of property has been so gradual, under a prosperity so marked and so long continued. The appreciation of landed and improved property has been confined almost exclusively to localities affected by unusual enterprise, and has not extended in any considerable degree to lands or other property beyond this range of influence. Those who have retained a vivid remembrance of former inflations, will find nothing in the present at all analogous to the speculations then in vogue. New cities laid out under water, and commercial depots staked off upon wild prairie lands, would not now prove inviting investments. We have it is true, now and then, a scheme almost as chimerical, and here and there a railroad project has a foundation about as hopeful; but the majority of our business men are clear from any hallucination upon these subjects, and rash speculations are not in the fashion.

The money market too, has been less excited than might have been anticipated with such an influx of gold. There have been neither extraordinary expansions or fluctuations in the currency, and much less disturbance than usual in monetary affairs. The supply of capital has been abundant and during most of the time at a range rather below the legal rates of interest; but there has been no such plethora as to glut the market, and lead of necessity to doubtful investments. The amount of coin added to the circulation of the country during the last four and a half years, or since the gold in California was discovered, (besides what has been taken for export,) is nearly $100,000,000. This includes the foreign coin which has been brought here within that time, as well as that of domestic production. This large amount of specie has been distributed through the country, and has exerted a very healthful check upon the circulation of bank-notes. Our readers may be curious to know in what proportion the amount on deposit at the great commercial centers has kept pace with the supply, and for this purpose we annex a tabular comparison at the periods named. The fluctuation between the banks and sub-treasury is caused by the withdrawals from the former for the payment of duties, and the deposit of the amount again when it is disbursed to public creditors.

DEPOSITS OF SPECIE AT NEW YORK.

Date.	In banks.	In Sub-Treasury.	Total.
September 9, 1852	$9,493,000	$6,735,000	$16,228,000
June 26, 1852	12,152,000	4,340,000	16,492,000
May 26, 1852	13,090,000	3,876,000	16,966,000
March 27, 1852	9,716,000	2,533,000	12,249,000
December 20, 1851	7,364,000	2,660,000	10,024,000
September 25, 1851	5,865,000	4,067,000	9,932,000
September 8, 1851	7,113,000	3,430,000	10,543,000
July 23, 1851	7,843,000	2,051,000	9,894,000
May 13, 1851	7,967,000	4,460,000	12,367,000
May 15, 1850	8,828,000	4,711,000	13,539,000
September 11, 1849	8,117,000	3,600,000	11,717,000
May 19, 1849	8,238,000	2,139,000	10,377,000
September 29, 1848	4,608,000	2,401,000	7,009,000
May 13, 1848	6,413,000	468,000	6,881,000

The large amount as shown at the few latest dates given above, is about as much as can be profitably employed, with the present amount of capital. There is however a manifest advantage in the introduction of the increased circulation of coin among the masses of the people. The exports of the pre-

cious metals have not kept pace with the supply, the latter having increased during the present year while the former has diminished, as will be seen by the following comparison :—

	Coinage at Philadelphia.	Exports from New York.
Eight months of 1852.....	$32,711,877	$18,531,341
Eight months of 1851.....	31,664,812	27,771,129
Increase.....	$1,047,065	dec. $9,239,788

We also annex a monthly statement of the shipments of specie from New York to foreign ports, since the discovery of gold in California :—

EXPORTS OF SPECIE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January.....	$1,183,517	$122,582	$90,361	$1,266,281	$2,868,958
February.....	433,226	106,851	278,708	1,007,689	3,551,548
March.....	452,507	86,506	172,087	2,368,861	611,994
April.....	1,176,422	85,691	290,407	3,482,182	200,266
May.....	2,449,253	373,916	741,735	4,506,135	1,834,893
June.....	1,971,915	596,411	880,434	6,462,367	3,556,355
July.....	744,983	138,352	1,518,080	6,004,170	2,971,499
August.....	331,031	359,368	1,441,736	2,673,444	2,935,833
September.....	561,445	326,384	1,033,918	3,490,142	.....
October.....	882,423	1,830,518	1,421,328	1,779,707	.....
November.....	482,186	634,898	965,894	5,033,996	.....
December.....	365,878	141,978	1,208,760	5,068,235	.....
Total.....	$11,034,786	$4,803,450	$9,982,948	$43,743,209	

Since our last, the annual statement of the cotton crop of the United States has been prepared, and we annex some particulars, compared with the summary of former years :—

TOTAL RECEIPTS OF COTTON INTO THE VARIOUS PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

	1851–2.	1850–1.	1849–50.	1848–9.	1847–8.	1846–7.	1845–6.
New Orleans..	1,373,464	933,369	781,886	1,093,797	1,190,733	705,979	1,037,144
Mobile.....	549,449	451,748	350,952	518,706	436,336	323,462	421,966
Florida.....	188,499	181,204	181,344	200,186	153,776	127,852	141,184
Texas.....	64,052	45,820	31,263	38,827	39,742	8,317	27,003
Georgia.....	325,714	322,376	343,635	391,372	254,825	242,789	194,911
S. Carolina....	476,614	387,075	384,265	458,117	261,752	350,200	251,405
N. Carolina....	16,242	12,928	11,861	10,041	1,518	6,061	10,637
Virginia, &c...	20,995	20,737	11,500	17,550	8,952	13,991	16,282
Total crop...	3,015,029	2,355,257	2,096,706	2,728,596	2,347,634	1,778,651	2,100,537

TOTAL FOREIGN EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM UNITED STATES.

	1851–2.	1850–1.	1849–50.	1848–9.	1847–8.	1846–7.	1845–6.
Great Britain..	1,668,749	1,418,265	1,106,771	1,537,901	1,324,265	830,909	1,102,369
France.....	421,375	301,358	289,627	368,259	279,172	241,486	359,703
N. of Europe..	168,875	129,492	72,156	165,458	120,848	75,689	86,692
Other for. ports.	184,647	139,595	121,601	156,226	134,476	93,138	118,028
Total.....	2,443,646	1,988,710	1,590,155	2,227,844	1,858,261	1,241,222	1,666,792

The home consumption has advanced from 404,198 bales in 1850–51, to

603,029 bales in 1851–52, an increase of nearly 50 per cent. This branch of home manufacture is now prosperous, and nearly all of the mills are fully engaged. The average price of cotton at Mobile for the last season, taking the grades of ordinary to middling fair, as compared with former seasons, has been as follows:—

Year.	Average.	Year.	Average.
1845–6	6¼ a 8¼	1849–50	10⅛ a 11
1846–7	9 11¼	1850–51	10⅛ ..
1847–8	5⅛ 7⅝	1851–52	7¼ 9
1848–9	5⅛ 7		

The receipts of gold from California are as heavy as usual, but owing to a delay in the arrival of one of the steamships throwing a large shipment forward into September, the total for the previous month appears less than was anticipated.

We annex a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints, for the month of August; a more extended statement of the total receipts and coinage at all the mints up to the 1st August, will be found in another part of the present number:—

DEPOSITS FOR AUGUST.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$127,294	$132,072	$2,550,000	$2,675,000
Silver	710	13,126	25,000	28,500
Total deposits	$128,004	$145,198	$2,575,000	$2,703,500

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	9,500	$190,000	175,279	$3,505,580
Eagles	....	.....	18,768	187,680
Half eagles	....	.....	45,283	226,415
Quarter eagles	....	.....	74,712	186,780
Gold dollars	....	.....	178,932	178,932
Total gold coinage	9,500	$190,000	492,974	$4,285,387

SILVER COINAGE.

Dollars	.....	.....	1,100	$1,100
Half dollars	.....	.. ...	15,100	7,550
Dimes	100,000	$10,000	62,500	6,250
Half dimes	.....	.....	70,000	3,500
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	1,436,600	43,098
Total silver coinage	100,000	$10,000	1,585,300	$61,498
Total coinage	109,500	200,000	2,078,274	4,346,885

There was no copper coinage during the month. The total deposits of California gold for coinage at our mints since 1848 is about $138,000,000, and the total production of the mines since their discovery is about $205,000,000.

The increased demand for foreign goods, as already noticed, has tended to increase the imports. At New York the value of merchandise (exclusive of specie,) received from foreign ports during the month of August, is $1,976,344 greater than for August 1851, and $4,228,027 greater than during the same month of 1850. We annex a comparison for three years:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption	$9,034,284	$11,279,004	$13,711,421
Entered for warehousing	1,743,211	1,358,089	464,962
Free goods	246,249	688,334	1,075,388
Specie	3,457,684	186,503	56,917
Total entered at the port	$14,461,428	$13,461,930	$15,308,688
Withdrawn from warehouse	1,716,055	1,352,245	1,329,991

The item of specie under the date of 1850 includes the receipts of California gold, which up to November of that year, having cleared from Chagres, were entered as from a foreign port. Of the increased imports as shown above in comparison with the previous year, $679,290 were in dry goods, and the remainder in general merchandise. We annex a comparison of each item:—

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR AUGUST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods	$7,803,131	$7,200,591	$7,879,881
General merchandise	3,220,613	6,074,836	7,371,890
Total merchandise	$11,023,744	$13,275,427	$15,251,771

The increase for the month of August, however, is not sufficient to make up for the previous decline, and the falling off in the total imports since January 1st is $10,810,765, as compared with the previous year, and $13,131,620 as compared with 1850.

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR EIGHT MONTHS ENDING AUGUST 31.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption	$72,288,772	$82,041,898	$72,209,450
Entered for warehousing	11,659,644	9,845,001	5,916,630
Free goods	6,207,603	6,803,459	9,335,327
Specie	12,522,173	1,666,979	2,085,165
Total entered at the ports	$102,678,192	$100,357,337	$89,546,572
Withdrawn from warehouse	7,094,156	8,132,230	10,952,558

The large amount of specie as shown in the statement for 1850, is owing to the California gold then included in the returns. We annex a statement of the relative receipts of merchandise:—

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods	$48,217,908	$49,440,808	$42,374,175
General merchandise	41,938,111	49,249,550	44,587,242
Total	$90,156,019	$98,690,358	$87,461,407

It will be noticed, that the entries for warehousing have fallen off materially, the receipts being wanted for immediate consumption: while the withdrawals have been larger, leaving the stock of merchandise in bond much smaller than usual. This is especially true in the receipts of dry goods: the entries for warehousing in the month of August, being but $252,896, against $1,142,567 for August, 1851, and $798,787 for August, 1850. The following is a correct classification of this description of imports:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$2,254,069	$1,736,232	$2,528,842
Manufactures of cotton	943,925	870,116	1,240,071
Manufactures of silk	2,803,145	2,532,029	2,706,702
Manufactures of flax	619,777	536,816	614,686
Miscellaneous dry goods	383,468	382,831	536,684
Total	$7,004,384	$6,058,024	$7,626,985

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$453,417	$297,124	$221,498
Manufactures of cotton	201,480	121,812	95,769
Manufactures of silk	146,787	121,689	140,143
Manufactures of flax	46,838	65,350	42,129
Miscellaneous dry goods	8,912	19,767	21,686
Total	$857,384	$625,242	$521,225
Add entered for consumption	7,004,384	6,058,024	7,626,985
Total thrown on the market	$7,861,768	$6,683,266	$8,148,210

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$358,198	$495,957	$86,890
Manufactures of cotton	181,452	143,970	45,018
Manufactures of silk	181,543	371,652	72,579
Manufactures of flax	70,028	92,295	19,873
Miscellaneous dry goods	7,526	38,693	28,536
Total	$798,747	$1,142,567	$252,896
Add entered for consumption	7,004,384	6,058,024	7,626,985
Total entered at the port	$7,803,131	$7,200,591	$7,879,881

The difference in the comparative value *thrown upon the market*, as already explained, is much greater than the difference in *the total receipts*, owing to the fact that the former includes a portion of the arrivals of the preceding year, which were suffered to lie in warehouse owing to the glut of foreign goods in the market. The following is a classification of the total imports of dry goods since January 1st:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$12,146,835	$10,672,753	$9,993,683
Manufactures of cotton	8,473,899	7,748,294	6,955,859
Manufactures of silk	15,236,295	18,274,613	14,949,433
Manufactures of flax	5,787,611	4,684,183	4,033,676
Miscellaneous dry goods	1,769,876	2,755,878	3,029,139
Total	$43,414,516	$44,235,721	$38,966,790

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,177,467	$1,193,671	$1,300,626
Manufactures of cotton	955,010	1,139,186	1,221,555
Manufactures of silk	835,748	980,615	1,541,319

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of flax	304,996	462,699	657,652
Miscellaneous dry goods	97,035	280,588	260,951
Total	$3,370,256	$4,047,759	$4,982,113
Add entered for consumption	43,414,516	44,235,721	38,966,790
Total thrown upon the market	$46,784,772	$48,283,480	$43,948,903

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,671,190	$1,661,246	$1,002,073
Manufactures of cotton	1,537,764	1,182,207	685,882
Manufactures of silk	976,085	1,610,092	1,724,697
Manufactures of flax	543,464	482,959	243,652
Miscellaneous dry goods	74,889	268,583	251,081
Total	$4,803,392	$5,205,087	$3,907,385
Add entered for consumption	43,414,517	44,235,721	38,966,790
Total entered at the port	$48,217,908	$49,440,808	$42,874,175

The receipts for duties have been larger than the imports would, at first sight, seem to warrant; owing to the considerable amount received for goods taken from the bonded warehouse.

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
January 1st to July 31st	$17,240,026 00	$20,211,065 72	$17,491,100 06
In August	3,484,965 65	3,234,764 21	3,884,295 56
Total for eight months	$20,724,991 65	$23,445,829 93	$21,375,395 62

The exports for the first time since January 1st, show a large decline from the corresponding month of last year, and a still greater decline as compared with the preceding year:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic Produce	$4,937,393	$3,259,594	$2,340,820
Foreign merchandise, (free)	18,766	22,974	46,464
Foreign merchandise, (dutiable)	658,737	384,549	220,978
Specie	1,441,786	2,673,444	2,935,833
Total	$7,056,682	$6,290,561	$5,544,095

Notwithstanding the decline as shown in August, the total exports from New York, from January 1st to September 1st, (exclusive of specie), are only $894,868: a decline which will be nearly or quite recovered in September.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR EIGHT MONTHS ENDING AUGUST 31ST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic produce	$27,428,526	$28,904,460	$27,452,183
Foreign merchandise, (free)	463,299	396,630	588,442
Foreign merchandise, (dutiable)	3,070,365	2,600,688	2,966,285
Specie	5,413,548	27,771,129	18,531,341
Total	$36,375,738	$59,672,907	$49,538,251

We continue our usual comparative statement of the clearances from New

York for foreign ports, of some of the leading articles of produce, from January 1st to September 20th :—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots...bbls.	16,100	13,781	Naval stores....bbls.	262,249	325,992
Pearls.....	1,444	664	Oils—whale....gals.	973,191	34,998
Beeswax.....lbs.	212,818	206,027	sperm.....	408,289	462,784
Breadstuffs—			lard.....	195,053	23,629
Wheat flour..bbls.	949,613	972,600	linseed.....	5,487	10,534
Rye flour.....	6,892	7,974	*Provisions*—		
Corn-meal.....	32,309	36,506	Pork.....bbls.	35,201	28,328
Wheat.....bush.	807,784	1,499,503	Beef.....	25,535	36,179
Rye.....	none.	286,460	Cut meats....lbs.	2,762,982	1,247,919
Oats.....	2,658	8,153	Butter.....	1,751,106	509,784
Barley.....	none.	367	Cheese	2,992,202	670,247
Corn.....	1,392,898	712,840	Lard	4,214,682	2,079,827
Candles—mold...bxs.	27,792	45,080	Rice .....trcs.	21,510	22,746
sperm....	2,510	2,765	Tallow.....lbs.	1,723,461	357,736
Coal .....tons	3,895	27,591	Tobacco—crude.pkgs.	11,321	18,946
Cotton.....bales	241,653	281,689	man'd .lbs.	2,546,062	2,113,551
Hay.....	4,982	6,557	Whalebone.....	1,462,490	577,636
Hops.....	128	483			

What the future demand for our breadstuffs, from Europe, may prove to be, it is, of course, at present, impossible to determine; but our own impression is, that we shall be called upon to furnish large quantities of prime wheat and flour for English markets. The crop there is not only less than was anticipated, but it has also suffered in various places more or less seriously from *blight*, which has materially injured the quality. For some months succeeding the harvest, it is probable that large quantities of poor wheat will be pressed on the market there, and produce a glut of this quality. But there must even then be a demand for prime American wheat to mix, and after the stock of native wheat shall be reduced, we may look for a steady trade in American cereals at fair prices. It is not desirable that prices should rise enormously; this would not only lessen the consumption, but would also interfere with the demand for cotton and cotton goods—a trade which is, after all, more important to us.

Much interest is felt in regard to the future course of our foreign trade. Some look upon any increase in this direction as another step in the road to ruin; while to many, it is but a token of increased prosperity. The month of September will show a larger total of imports than the corresponding month of last year, although not sufficient to make up for the falling off during the first six months. The returns are not completed as yet; but sufficient is known, to show that there will be an increase. The exports, however, will show a still greater increase; and if new cotton continues to arrive freely, there will be no lack of exchange.

The bids for the Pennsylvania loans have been opened since our last. The offering was less than anticipated; owing to the complicated character of the invitation extended. Had the State confined the proposals to a 5 per cent stock, there can be little doubt but what a higher rate would have been realized. Of the $5,000,000, but $3,000,000 were taken, by C. H. Fisher, Esq., on foreign account, as follows: $400,000 5 per cent at $30 premium for every $1,000; $520,000 at $12 80; $520,000 do. at $15 37; $520,000 at $17 70; $520,000 at $20 20, and $520,000 at $22 70—an average of about 2 per cent premium. The Pennsylvania R. R. loan, of $3,000,000 6 per cent, was also awarded to the same party, at a premium of 3¼ per cent. The month closes with a better demand for money on the seaboard—the banks in the interior having drawn down their balances.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

THE ENTIRE PRODUCT OF CALIFORNIA GOLD.

We are indebted to Messrs. Hussey, Bond & Hall, of San Francisco, for a copy of their semi-annual circular for the six months ending June 30th, 1852. It is evidently prepared with care, and contains a variety of statistical tables of great value in a commercial and financial point of view. The subjoined estimates of the entire product of gold from 1848 to June 30th, 1852, is given in the circular alluded to above; the authors of the circular regret that the data for their estimate is so imperfect. They have given to the subject close investigation, but the table is necessarily approximative. So far as actual data can be had it is furnished, and their estimates are predicated upon such facilities as residence in the country of production, and constant careful observation afford:—

ESTIMATES OF THE ENTIRE GOLD PRODUCT OF CALIFORNIA.

OFFICIAL REPORT OF DEPOSITS OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA.

At the various United States mints in 1848			$44,177
" " " " " 1849			6,147,509
" " " " " 1850			36,074,062
" " " " " 1851			55,988,232
Manifested shipments to U. S. ports in December, 1851, which did not reach the mint in 1851			2,910,214
Importations into Chili in 1851 by official returns from that country		$2,372,000	
Shipments per steamers in 1851, on freight to Europe and various countries, (not including Chili,) *via* Panama, so far as destination was declared on manifests	$3,600,000		
Add estimate of shipments by same course and to same quarters in 1851, for which the destination beyond Panama was not declared—50 per cent of above	1,800,000		
		5,400,000	
Known shipments by sailing vessels in 1851, to various foreign ports	1,000,000		
Add for amount not manifested believed to be as large	1,000,000		
		2,000,000	
Total estimate of exportation to foreign countries in '51		9,772,000	
The early foreign trade to this was very large, particularly in 1849, from Pacific ports. Remittances in this early trade were made chiefly in gold dust. The aggregate shipments to foreign countries for 1848, 1849, 1850, is therefore assumed for the three years to be as large as that of 1851		9,772,000	
Total estimate of exports to foreign countries to December 31st, 1851, which would not reach U. S. mints			19,554,000
			120,658,194
Estimated amount taken over land to Mexico and by passengers to Europe, East Indies, Australia, South America, (exclusive of Chili,) manufactured in California, and United States, and otherwise, retained by individuals leaving the country, and therefore not represented in the mint deposits, say 5 per cent on above			6,032,909

In hands of bankers, merchants, and traders in San Francisco, per tabular statement prepared December 31st, 1851	5,000,000
In hands of bankers and traders in other parts of California and Oregon, December 31st, 1851	2,500,000
Estimated half months yield at mines not brought forward December 1851—say	2,500,000
In circulation—gold dust and California private coin, estimated at $20 per individual, and population estimated 212,000	4,240,000
Estimated product to December 31st, 1851	$140,931,103
Estimated product from January 1, to June 30, 1852	33,849,774
Total estimated product to June 30, 1852	$174,780,877

SHIPMENTS AND ESTIMATED PRODUCTS OF GOLD FROM JANUARY 1ST TO JUNE 30TH, 1852.

The authentic materials of an estimate for the production of the six months ending June 30th, 1852, are limited to actual returns of the agents of the several steam lines and other amounts manifested at the Custom-house. The amounts taken by passengers and not manifested must be assumed. As an evidence of the importance of this item, we give a comparative statement of sums manifested at one Custom-house corresponding with those deposited at the several mints of the United States during the early part of this year, namely:—

Manifested shipments to United States ports from January 1st to April 18th, 1852, were	$9,834,203
Manifested shipments in December, 1851, which would reach the mint in January 1852	2,910,214
Total amounts manifested for United States ports from December 5th, 1851, to April 18th, 1852	$12,744,417

This amount would have reached the mints in the natural course, during the first five months of the year.

The deposits of California gold at the several United States Mints during these five months were, however, $20,773,000. Showing an excess of 60 per cent over the sums manifested for the United States ports, which were due at the mints during those months.

A statement published in 1851, also shows that for several months the receipts at the Philadelphia Mint were nearly double the sums entered at the Custom house in New York, during the corresponding time. It is a well known fact that nearly all home returning passengers take more or less gold. We have ourselves known of as large amounts as $5,000 to $20,000 (in one instance, $80,000) having been taken in luggage to save freights.

Manifested shipments as furnished by the agents of the Pacific Mail Steamship Co., from January 1st to June 30th, 1851:—

For United States ports, *via.* Panama	$16,825,947
For other countries, *via* Panama	2,969,514
	$19,795,461
Manifested shipments as furnished by the Agents of Vanderbilts' Line.	419,000
Manifested shipments by sundry vessels and steamers	300,548
Total known shipments in 6 months	$20,515,009
Add estimated amounts by sailing vessels not manifested, and sums taken overland to Mexico, say 5 per cent on above	1,025,765
Add 60 per cent to amount manifested, which will be equivalent to about $1,100 each for 11,363 passengers cleared in 6 months	12,300,000
The bullion on hand in the State, on 30th June, 1852, may be assumed at the same as that on hand December 31, 1851, already included in estimates. It is probable that the yield for the last half year will exceed that of the first half of the year. Estimated production, 6 months	$33,840,774

PRODUCTION OF GOLD AND SILVER IN THE WORLD IN 1846 AND 1850.

The *London Times* publishes the following statistical tables and remarks on the annual supply of gold throughout the world, prepared by WILLIAM BIRKMYRE, "with much industry and care." In a letter to the editor of the *Times*, Mr. Birkmyre says, "The tables of the produce of gold and silver, I have drawn up from original authentic sources. I have investigated the subject during the last four years, and have consulted every accessible authority, both English and foreign:"—

COMPARATIVE TABLE, SHOWING THE ANNUAL PRODUCE (APPROXIMATE CALCULATION) IN VALUE OF FINE GOLD AND SILVER FOR 1846 AND 1850, THE FIRST BEING TWO YEARS BEFORE THE DISCOVERY OF THE RICH DEPOSITS OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA; THE LATTER TWO YEARS AFTER THE DISCOVERY.

1846.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
California	.....	.....	.....
United States	£237,336	£1,864	£239,230
Mexico	249,753	3,457,020	3,706,773
New Granada	252,407	42,929	295,336
Peru	96,241	1,000,583	1,096,824
Bolivia	60,337	469,191	520,548
Chili	145,585	297,029	442,614
Brazil	259,871	2,003	261,874
Total N. and S. America	£1,301,560	£5,261,619	£6,563,179
Russia	3,414,427	167,831	3,582,258
Norway	.....	32,346	32,346
North Germany	357	138,022	138,379
Saxony	.....	198,200	198,200
Austria	282,750	282,654	565,404
Piedmont	17,841	7,444	25,285
Spain	2,498	227,499	229,997
United Kingdom	.....	109,989	109,989
Africa	203,900	1,056	204,956
Borneo	305,900	1,584	307,484
Ava	100,000	517	100,517
Malacca	72,240	374	72,614
Sumatra	63,719	330	64,049
Annan, or Tonquin	30,585	53,460	84,045
Various countries *	50,975	33,000	83,975
Total of Europe, Africa, & Asia	£4,545,192	£1,254,806	£5,799,498
Total N. and S. America	1,301,560	5,261,619	6,563,179
Total	£5,846,752	£6,515,925	£12,362,677

1850.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
California	£12,000,000	£62,088	£12,062,088
United States	115,430	11,444	126,874
Mexico	382,901	5,383,333	5,766,234
New Granada	252,407	42,929	295,336
Peru	96,241	1,000,583	1,096,824
Bolivia	60,357	460,191	520,548
Chili	145,585	297,029	442,614
Brazil	289,068	2,227	291,295
Total, N. and S. America	£13,341,989	£7,259,824	£20,601,813
Russia	4,175,860	171,817	4,347,477
Norway	.....	35,707	35,607

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
North Germany	357	138,022	138,379
Saxony	.....	198,200	198,200
Austria	288,708	286,971	575,679
Piedmont	17,841	7,444	25,285
Spain	2,498	440,210	442,708
United Kingdom	.....	160,000	160,000
Africa	203,900	1,056	204,956
Borneo	305,850	1,584	307,434
Ava	100,000	517	100,517
Malacca	72,240	374	72,614
Sumatra	63,719	330	64,049
Annan, or Tonquin	30,585	53,460	84,045
Various countries *	50,975	33,000	83,975
Total of Europe, Africa, & Asia.	£5,312,533	£1,528,592	£6,840,975
Total of N. and S. America	13,341,989	7,259,824	20,601,813
Total	£18,654,522	£8,788,416	£27,442,788

Those marked thus (*) are exclusive of China and Japan, which produce large quantities of gold and silver, the amount of which is quite unknown to Europeans.

At the beginning of the 19th century, Baron Humboldt's estimate (*Essai Politique*, tome 2, page 633) of the annual produce of North and South America, was 17,291 kilogrammes—46,331 lbs. Troy of gold, and 795,581 kilogrammes—2,131,770 lbs. of silver; value of both metals in dollars, 43,500,000, equal to £9,243,750; the produce of Europe and Northern Asia at the same time was 4,916 lbs. of gold, £250,593; and 199,298 lbs. of silver, £657,683. Total value of the precious metals raised in America, Europe, and Northern Asia, £10,152,026.

In 1801 the quantity of pure gold produced in America was.....lbs.	46,331
In Europe and Northern Asia, (exclusive of China and Japan)	4,916
Total produce.....	51,247

—55,910 lbs. British standard gold—£2,612,200.

In 1846 the quantity of pure gold produced in America was.....lbs.	25,503
In Europe, Africa, and Asia, (exclusive of China and Japan).....	89,171
Total produce	114,674

—125,108 lbs. British standard gold—£5,846,772.

In 1850, the quantity of pure gold produced in America was.....lbs.	261,731
In Europe, Africa, and Asia, (exclusive of China and Japan).....	104,219
Total produce	365,950

—399,247 lbs. British standard gold—£18,654,322.

The above quantities are probably less than the actual production. The duties on gold in Russia, on the produce of the private mines, are heavy, varying from 12 to 24 per cent; in Austria, they amount to 10 per cent; in Brazil, to 5 per cent; and are understood to lead to a great deal of smuggling. In other countries, such as the United States, where there are no duties, the gold and silver stated in the table are only the quantities brought to the mints to be coined, there being no means of determining the quantity used in jewelry and other arts and manufactures.

The above tables, imperfect though they be, will suffice to show that the produce of gold in the world has greatly increased in the last few years. It would appear that it has risen from 114,674 lbs., in 1846, to 365,950 lbs. in 1850. In those five years the increase has been at the rate of 219 per cent, while silver has only increased from 1,979,084 lbs., in 1846, to 2,663,386 lbs., in 11850, or 34½ (34.5) per cent. The former metal is, therefore, apparently increasing at the rate of 44 (43.8) per cent per annum, and the latter at 7 (6.9) per cent. The greater part of the increase in silver is in Mexico, which is doubtless owing to a variety of circumstances, such as restored tranquillity, richer mines, and greater skill. It would not, therefore, be safe to count upon such an increase every year, but we are certainly not exaggerating in say-

ing that silver is now regularly increasing throughout the world. It may be estimated at an average of 2½ per cent per annum.

It is a remarkable fact, however, and worth recalling, that in the country where the greatest increase of silver has taken place, there was concurrently a loss of thousands of pounds of English capital, by the various English silver mining companies; so much so that none of all the silver mining companies projected to work mines in Mexico between 1824 and 1830, have been successful. Some of them were being wound up during the very time when mining was prosperously conducted by the Mexicans. This seems to have been owing to a want of knowledge, or of control, or to the mischief of share-jobbing in the English companies; but, whatever may have been the cause, the natives of that country have found silver mining to be profitable. The enormous profit of £240,000 a year obtained by the old Spaniards from the Valencianna mine, a profit larger than all the tin and copper mines of England put together, is generally looked upon more as a fable than a reality by those who have heard casually of silver mining as conducted by English companies. The English gold mining companies have done better, and probably had they some twenty years ago the skill and knowledge of the present day, they would have been highly successful.

The quantity of gold produced in America at the beginning of the century was, according to Humboldt, 46,331 lbs. Troy, and that of silver, 2,131,770 lbs. In 1846, the produce of gold in America had fallen to 25,503 lbs. Compared with the silver then produced, namely, 1,594,431 lbs., the gold was, therefore, 62 times less than the silver. In 1850, the yield of gold, in consequence of the great discoveries in California in 1848, had risen to 261,731 lbs., being in weight only eight times less than the weight of the silver.

The annual produce of gold in the whole world (excepting Africa and some parts of Asia) at the commencement of the century, was in a somewhat greater ratio, being 1 lb. of gold to 45 lbs. of silver; in the year 1846, the produce of gold (including Africa, but excepting China and Japan) was at the rate of 1 to 17. In 1850, the produce of the same countries had risen to 1 of gold to 7 of silver.

As regards the produce of gold last year in California, it would appear that it must have amounted to about $82,118,500, equal to £17,339,544. The yield of the newly discovered gold mining region at Bathurst, New South Wales, and at Mount Alexander and Buninyong, Victoria, may be stated at fully £1,000,000. Hence there is an increase to the production of 1850 of 124,382 lbs., Troy, of fine gold, the total produce of gold in 1851 being therefore, 490,332 lbs.; at £50 19s. 5½d. per lb. pure gold, equal to £24,994,066. There is much reason to believe (*vide* the comparative table) that the annual produce of silver is now steadily increasing, say at the very low rate of 2½ per cent. The yield of silver in 1851 will thus be 2,729,970 lbs., Troy, equal to £9,008,900. Consequently the total value of the produce of gold and silver last year is £34,002,966.

But, large as the produce of gold is thus shown to have been last year, in California and Australia, it is likely to be greatly increased this year, it being confidently expected by the Americans that the recent discoveries of very rich deposits in various districts of California, will raise the exports for the twelve months to £100,000,000, equal to £21,041,666. This, moreover, is a very moderate allowance, as the exports alone, in the first three months, are known to have amounted to $3,900,000 more than those of the corresponding three months of 1851; while, as regards Australia, late news from that quarter makes it probable that the produce there will at least amount to one-half of the yield of California in 1850, or £6,000,000. The exports merely, from Australia, up to January 15th, (although gold dust was selling as low as £2 17s. per ounce,) have amounted to 284,000 ounces, equivalent to £1,000,000, a part of the yield of about four months' digging. Should other countries only yield at the same rate as in 1850 or 1851, namely, £6,654,522, this, added to the produce of California and Australia, will amount to £33,696,188, or 664,032 lbs. Troy. Estimating the increase in the yield of silver at 2½ per cent, the amount of silver for this year is 2,798,219 lbs.; at £3 6s. per lb., equal to £9,284,122. The total value of both gold and silver for the present year is, therefore, £42,930,310.

The average yearly coinage of gold during the first thirty years of this century was—

In Great Britain	$1,700,000
France	1,300,000
United States	550,900
Total	£3,550,000

The following is a statement of the recent gold coinage in the same countries, beginning with the year in which the gold discovery was made in California:—

	Great Britain.	France.	United States.	Total.
1848.....	£2,451,999	£1,144,472	£786,555	£4,473,026
1849.....	2,177,000	1,084,382	1,875,158	5,136,540
1850.....	1,491,000	3,407,691	6,662,854	11,561,545
1851.....	10 months.	10,077,252	12,919,695	.....

The gold coinage last year in the United States exceeded by £3,398,927 the largest coinage of the same metal ever made in the United Kingdom. And the coinage in France during the first ten months exceeded by £556,494 the memorable coinage in this country of £9,520,758 in the year 1821.

The annual consumption of the precious metals (exclusive of coinage) in Europe and America, is supposed to be about £4,840,000, to which there may be added, for the other quarters of the globe, £1,660,000—total, £6,500,000. It is important, but difficult, to determine how much of this sum consists of gold. Mr. Jacob, about 20 years ago, estimated the annual consumption of gold in Great Britain at £1,636,000. The other countries of the globe would at least consume half as much more, making £2,454,000, to which the annual gold coinage has to be added. Comparing this total with the quantity of gold produced at the beginning of the century, or even for many years after, it then appears that gold from the mines was not raised in amount equal to the entire consumption; besides which, it seems to have been used relatively in a greater proportion than silver, and accounts for the premium in France of 12 francs per mille over silver, which gold not unfrequently commanded, till the recent discoveries, for a pound troy of gold in France, in 1802, was found to be exactly equal to 15 lbs. 8 oz. of silver, but afterwards became equal to 15 lbs. 8 oz. Now, however, the premium is likely to be reversed most materially, for, deducting the £2,454,000 of gold consumed in the arts, from the supposed yield of the gold mines in the present year, namely, £33,696,188, leaves £31,242,188 to be converted into coin; being a larger sum by £5,239,053 than the total circulation of gold coin in Great Britain in the year 1780. The general inference that specie must be accumulating is further borne out by the fact that, notwithstanding discounts are unusually low in the three principal cities of the world, yet there is in each city a notable increase of bullion, compared with 1848, as the following table will show:—

Bank of England, week ending May 6, 1848.....	£12,826,108
" " " " May 8, 1850.....	20,231,037
Bank of France, week ending May 4, 1848..	3,534,165
" " (last return) April 8, 1852.....	23,505,204
Banks of New York, quarter ending March, 1848.....	1,404,125
" " " " " 1852.....	2,029,448

Summary of the quantity of bullion in the above named banks in 1848, and the nearest corresponding period of 1852:—

	Bank of England.	Bank of France.	Banks of N. York.	Total.
1848	£12,826,108	£3,534,165	£1,404,125	£17,764,398
1852	20,231,037	23,506,204	2,029,428	55,766,689
Increase of bullion in 1852.....				£28,002,291

By the last return of the Bank of England, the specie appears to the value of £20,231,037—being the largest amount she has ever held, and £3,592,722 above her highest accumulation previous to the development of the wealth of California.

It may be stated generally that there was, in 1850, five times as much gold produced in North and South America as in any of the most productive years of the American mines under the Spanish government. At the same time the silver mines of America were yielding quite as much silver as at the beginning of the century, when they were nearly as productive as at any former or later period under Spanish dominion.

Yet, notwithstanding the great increase in the produce of gold relative to silver, it is a curious fact that the price of silver has not risen; on the contrary, it has fallen in value. In the course of the week ending April 17, 1852, £580,000 worth of silver was sold at 5s. an ounce, British standard, which is only equivalent to 64s. 9d. per lb. Troy for pure silver. At that rate, 1 lb. of pure gold is worth 15¼ (15.74) pounds of pure silver. In January, 1851, gold was only 15½ (15.3) times more valuable than silver.

The following is the estimated produce of the precious metals, in tons, in 1801, 1846, 1850, 1851, and the probable amount of 1852:—

Year.	Gold.	Silver.			
1801.....	19	856, or 1 lb. of gold to 45 lbs. of silver.			
1846	42	727,	do.	17	do.
1850.....	134	978,	do.	7	do.
1851.....	180	1,002,	do.	5	do.
1852.....	242	1,027,	do.	4	do.

Although the 242 tons is an increase of no less than twelve times the quantity produced at the beginning of the century—a quantity of the glittering treasure that is fraught with the mightiest consequences to society—yet, as respects bulk, it sinks into perfect insignificance, for, if it were melted into bars, a closet nine feet high, eight long, and eight broad, would hold it all. It would require 21,713 times as much space to hold all the iron that is now smelted in Great Britain.

STOCK FLUCTUATIONS IN BOSTON MARKET FOR SIX YEARS.

We give below a table from the *Boston Commonwealth*, exhibiting the prices of thirty different stocks, on the first day of June, for six years past, which will give an idea of the general depression which has been maintained throughout that time, more especially in railroad stocks. Bank stocks were low in 1817, and since then have been gradually gaining until they are now the highest priced securities in the market:—

	June 1, 1847.	June 1, '48.	June 1, '49	Ju'e 1, '50.	Ju'e 1, '51.	J'e 1. '52.
Boston & Lowell.....	119	114	117¼	114	113¼	110
Boston & Maine	117	115¼	102	104¾	106¼	110
Boston & Providence.....	108	92¼	91¼	80¼	92	98¾
Boston & Worcester.....	120	113	107	96¾	106	106¾
Cheshire, (old stock)	97	83	72	43¼	60¼	45
Connecticut River.....	92	101	97	85	65	68
Concord, (par 50).....	64	60¼	61	54¼	54	54¾
Eastern.....	110	104¼	104	103	101	103¼
Fall River.....	89¼	90¼	86	75	93	105¼
Fitchburg	125	117¼	115	111	113	107
Nashua & Lowell.....	124¼	122	120	108¼	107	106¾
Northern.....	102	96¾	77¼	67¼	71	63¼
Norwich & Worcester	50	27¼	37	44	64¼	55¼
Old Colony.....	103	92	79	54	67¼	65¾
Portland & Saco	104	100¼	98¼	99¼	101¼	100¼
Reading	29	18¾	16	24¾	29¼	39¼
Rutland	..	82¼	73	54	57¼	40
Vermont & Massachusetts...	83	71¼	43	27	30	22¼
Vermont Central.....	94	74¾	50¼	29¼	36¾	17¾
Western.....	109	103¼	107	102	106¼	107¼
Wilmington.....	27¼	26	27	24¾	30	32¾
Canton Company.....	37	33	39	..	80	81¼
East Boston Company.....	19	12¼	14	15¼	31¼	24¾
Pittsburg Copper Company..	80	64	85	94	124	108
Atlantic Bank.....	98	98¼	100¼	110	111¼	112
Boylston Bank.....	100	101¼	102	106	109¼	111¼
Exchange Bank.....	..	92¼	97¼	105	106¼	107¼
Merchants' Bank	102	100	103¼	108¼	109¼	112¼
New England Bank.....	102¼	102	104¾	109¼	111¼	118
Shawmut Bank	95	92	95¼	102¼	105¼	109

But one dividend-paying railroad stock in the above list, the Fall River, now stands higher than on the first of June, 1847; but it will be seen that the price of it was much depressed then, while the others were at the top of the ladder. Of the fancies, Norwich, Reading, Wilmington, Canton, East Boston, and Pittsburg Copper Company, all stand higher now than in June 1, 1847, but the intervening time they have each had "ups and downs" peculiar to themselves, and best known to those who have "operated" in them for profit or loss.

RECEIPTS OF UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for September 1852, (vol. xxvii., page 349,) we published a statement of the expenditures of the United States from 1789 to 1851, inclusive, showing the annual average during each administration. We now subjoin a similar statement of the receipts for the same periods:—

DATES AND LENGTH OF PRESIDENTIAL TERMS.

WASHINGTON—Eight years, from April 30, 1789, to March 4, 1797.
JOHN ADAMS—Four years, from March 4, 1797, to March 4, 1801.
JEFFERSON—Eight years, from March 4, 1801, to March 4, 1809.
MADISON—Eight years, from March 4, 1809, to March 4, 1817.
MONROE—Eight years, from March 4, 1817, to March 4, 1825.
JOHN Q. ADAMS—Four years, from March 4, 1825, to March 4, 1829.
JACKSON—Eight years, from March 4, 1829, to March 4, 1837.
VAN BUREN—Four years, from March 4, 1837, to March 4, 1841.
HARRISON AND TYLER—Four years, from March 4, 1841, to March 4, 1845.
POLK—Four years, from March 4, 1845, to March 4, 1849.
TAYLOR AND FILLMORE—Three years, from March 4, 1859, to March 4, 1851.

STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1789 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE. ANNUAL AVERAGE DURING EACH ADMINISTRATION.

Administration.	Customs.	Internal revenue.	Direct taxes.	Postage.
Washington	$3,633,170 62	$204,222 88	.....	$16,976 10
John Adams	7,846,773 40	702,095 59	$183,555 99	55,750 00
Jefferson	13,072,531 87	249,895 50	124,315 62	27,937 77
Madison	12,620,567 82	1,436,147 65	1,083,512 90	56,233 15
Monroe	18,288,740 35	285,076 92	285,076 03	7,151 10
John Quincy Adams	21,589,463 03	21,174 62	3,453 83	222 71
Jackson	23,167,844 16	7,876 51	6,377 35	243 95
Van Buren	15,991,379 43	3,049 17	610 73	.....
Harrison and Tyler	16,476,885 08	1,159 23	.....	.....
Polk	27,436,434 04	.....	.....	.....
Taylor and Fillmore	39,010,931 05	.....	.....	.....

	Public lands.	Dividends and sales of bank stocks, &c.	Miscellaneous.
Washington	$604 51	$218,750 00	$10,746 58
John Adams	23,986 86	151,806 00	42,242 94
Jefferson	423,637 30	177,045 00	94,741 34
Madison	983,379 62	.....	104,944 68
Monroe	1,803,196 80	426,863 18	137,860 86
John Quincy Adams	1,281,007 41	411,250 00	401,249 73
Jackson	7,267,598 95	527,986 24	529,744 15
Van Buren	5,056,727 28	1,923,145 86	2,554,793 60
Harrison and Tyler	1,414,795 71	182,420 47	519,209 12
Polk	2,649,618 13	.....	176,933 31
Taylor and Fillmore	1,967,053 03	.....	1,276,324 67

	Receipts exclusive of loans, treasury notes, &c.	Loans and treasury notes.	Total receipts.
Washington	$4,083,220 71	$2,525,860 64	$6,609,081 35
John Adams	8,746,209 80	1,763,947 81	10,510,157 61
Jefferson	14,175,104 42	25,606 22	14,200,710 64
Madison	16,284,785 85	13,740,913 12	30,025,698 97
Monroe	21,456,993 92	1,723,344 29	23,180,338 21
John Quincy Adams	23,707,821 35	1,250,000 00	24,957,821 35
Jackson	31,507,671 35	.....	31,507,671 35
Van Buren	25,165,009 79	6,289,158 43	31,454,168 22
Harrison and Tyler	18,594,219 64	10,724,327 54	29,318,547 18
Polk	30,262,980 14	11,733,974 81	41,996,954 95
Taylor and Fillmore	42,254,375 42	10,878,233 00	53,132,608 42

PRODUCTION OF GOLD AT SYDNEY AND MELBOURNE.

By the last advices received from Sydney we have the following information respecting the quantity of gold obtained and exported to England since the discovery of the "diggins" in May, 1851. It will be seen that the total produce of Sydney and Melbourne is of the estimated value of £3,654,348, even at the reduced price of 65s. per ounce. We quote the figures on the authority of the *Sydney Morning Herald*:—

Twelve months have rolled round since the startling announcement was made that the soil of Australia was as rich, or even richer, than that of California, and in those twelve months how wonderful has been its production! During the first period of its existence some thought that the year might produce £500,000; others were bold enough to state that the yield would be beyond a million; but none were daring enough to anticipate the fact—that we have actually dug out of the bowels of the earth an amount that very nearly approaches £4,000,000 sterling. Such, however, is the case, as we shall now proceed to show by a few statistics:—

There has been exported, to this date.....ounces	393,794	
There is now lying in harbor about.....	50,000	
There may be in the banks and private hands in town	40,000	
And at the mines, say.....	20,000	
Making a total.....	503,794	
From which deduct the quantity received from Victoria.....	148,061	
Leaving the produce of our mines for the year		355,733
There was exported from Melbourne up to 23d April.....	668,682	
Estimated quantity in banks and private hands in that city..	50,000	
And at the mines, say.....	50,000	
Making a total of produce from the mines.....		768,682
And showing a grand total produced by the two colonies of.....		1,124,415

Which, at 65s. per ounce, gives a value in pounds sterling of £3,654,348 15s.

The gold coming into Sydney has arrived through the various channels, as follows:—

By western mails.....ounces	55,622	
By do. escort	125,251	
		180,873
By southern mails.....	13,826	
By do. escort.....	27,097	
		40,923
By mails from Tamworth.....		433
By vessels from Melbourne.....		148,061
Making a total of.....		370,290
So that there must have come in by private hands		113,504

It is almost impossible to obtain a correct account of the number of licenses issued, but the amount received for licenses in both colonies to 31st March last, were as follows:—

New South Wales.....	£46,171 13 0
Victoria.....	74,079 0 0

The escort fees up to the same period were:—

For New South Wales.....	£4,310 12 9
For Victoria.....	8,124 16 9

We have not had so large an influx of population as was expected, but that may be accounted for to a considerable extent by the time that must elapse before the world could become acquainted with our circumstances. The arrivals have been—

From England.....	4,029
From California.....	2,219
From Australian colonies.....	6,915
From foreign ports.....	1,752
Making a total of.....	14,915

The departures have been—

To England	329	
To California	898	
To Port Philip and Australian Colonies	5,225	
And foreign ports	221	
Making a total of		6,673
So that our population has increased from external sources during our first gold year by		8,242

The news from our mines is of an encouraging character. The escorts during the week ending 6th May, 1851, brought in—

From Major's Creek	ounces	266
Araluen		264
Braidwood		252
Goulburn		89
Sofala		2,427
Bathurst		241
Ophir		18
And the mails—		
From Braidwood		232
Mudgee		157
Gundagai		26
Murrurundi		36
Bathurst		69
Sofala		186
Making a total, by escort and mails, of		4,263

in value about £14,000. There has also come in, per *Waratah* and *Dart*, from Melbourne, about 15,000 ounces.

The amount of gold deposited in the assay-office, Adelaide, up to the 20th ult., was £222,678 18s. 7d. The number of persons who had left Adelaide for the gold mines was about 18,000.

The price of gold has continued firm through the week at 63s. 6d. to 64s., according to sample.

The export since our last has been—

May 6, per *Johnstone*, for London	ounces	9,099
Which, at 65s. per ounce, gives		£29,571 15 0
Add previous export		1,250,260 5 7
Total shipped to this date, (8th May, 1852)		£1,279,832 0 7

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

The subjoined statement of the banks in New Orleans, on the 28th August, 1852, is derived from the report of Chas. Gayarre, Secretary of State, and G. C. McWhorter, State Treasurer:—

MOVEMENT OF THE BANKS.

	CASH LIABILITIES.		CASH ASSETS.	
	Circulation.	Total.	Specie.	Total.
Specie-paying—				
Louisiana Bank	$1,092,089	$4,476,846	$2,532,565	$5,036,166
Canal Bank	1,043,467	2,426,825	1,034,343	3,178,180
Louisiana State Bank	1,149,010	4,493,993	1,691,923	4,880,159
Mechanics' & Traders' Bank	860,795	2,086,265	970,466	2,772,511
Union Bank	25,520	57,152	103,547	299,462
Non-specie paying—				
Citizens' Bank	6,028	100,537	79,868	87,344
Consolidated Association	8,021	10,063	28,021	28,021
Total	$4,184,930	$13,651,681	$6,440,733	$17,281,843

TOTAL MOVEMENT AND DEAD WEIGHT.

	Liabilities exclusive of capital.	Assets.
Specie-paying—		
Louisiana Bank	$4,476,845 78	$9,439,483 82
Canal and Banking Co	2,426,825 57	6,748,613 46
Louisiana State Bank	4,493,992 63	6,885,266 31
Mechanics' & Traders' Bank	2,086,264 75	4,206,601 70
Union Bank	57,152 72	2,186,355 71
Non-specie-paying—		
Citizens' Bank	6,386,070 20	5,716,116 86
Consolidated Association	1,508,684 36	1,216,811 72
Total	$21,385,836 01	$36,399,244 59

THE NEW TAX LAW OF OHIO.

RULES FOR VALUING PROPERTY IN OHIO—OF REDUCTION MADE FROM MONEYS AND CREDITS—OF LISTING AND VALUING THE PROPERTY OF MERCHANTS AND MANUFACTURERS, AND OF BANKERS, EXCHANGE BROKERS, AND STOCK JOBBERS—OF VALUING THE PROPERTY OF BANKS AND LOANING COMPANIES, AND OTHER CORPORATIONS.

We publish below those sections of the tax law of Ohio, passed at the last session of the Legislature of that State, which concern more directly the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, or merchants, bankers, and others who refer to its pages for all matters falling within its comprehensive scope:—

RULES FOR VALUING PROPERTY.

SEC. 9.—Each separate parcel of real property shall be valued at its true value in money, excluding the value of the crops growing thereon; but the price for which such real property would sell at auction, or at a forced sale, shall not be taken as the criterion of such true value. Each tract or lot of real property belonging to this State, or to any county, city, or charitable institution, whether incorporated or unincorporated, and school or ministerial lands held under a lease for a term exceeding fourteen years, shall be valued at such price as the assessor believes could be obtained at private sale for such leasehold estate. Personal property, of every description, shall be valued at the usual selling price of similar property at the time of listing, and at the place where the same may then be; and if there shall be no usual selling price known to the person whose duty it shall be to fix a value thereon, then at such a price as it is believed could be obtained therefor, in money, at such time and place. Investments in bonds, stocks, joint stock companies, or otherwise, shall be valued at the true value thereof in money. Money, either in possession or on deposit, shall be entered in the statement at the full amount thereof: Provided, that depreciated bank notes shall be entered at their current value. Every credit for a sum certain, payable either in money, property of any kind, labor, or services, shall be valued at the full price of the sum so payable; if for a specific article, or for a specified number or quantity of any article or articles of property, or for a certain amount of labor, or for services of any kind, it shall be valued at the current price of such property, or of such labor or service at the place where payable. Annuities, or moneys received at stated periods, shall be valued at the price which the person listing the same believes them to be worth in money.

OF REDUCTIONS MADE FROM MONEYS AND CREDITS.

SEC. 10. In making up the amount of moneys and credits which any person is required to list for himself, or any other person, company, or corporation, he shall be entitled to deduct from the gross amount of moneys and credits the amount of all bona fide debts owing by such person, company, or corporation, for a consideration received; but no acknowledgment of indebtedness, not founded on actual consideration, believed, when received, to have been adequate, and no such acknowledgment made for the purpose of being so deducted, shall be considered a debt within the meaning of this section; and so much only of any liability, as surety for others, shall be deducted as the person making out the statement believes the surety is legally and equitably bound to pay, and so much only as he believes the surety will be compelled to pay in consequence of the inability or insolvency of the principal debtor; and if

there are other sureties able to contribute, then only so much as the surety in whose behalf the statement is made, will be bound to contribute: Provided, that nothing in this section shall be so construed as to apply to any bank, company, or corporation exercising banking powers or privileges.

SEC. 11. No person, company, or corporation shall be entitled to a deduction on account of any bond, note or obligation of any kind, given to any mutual insurance company; nor on account of any unpaid subscription to any religious, literary, scientific, or charitable institution or society; nor on account of any subscription to, or installment payable on, the capital stock of any company, whether incorporated or unincorporated.

OF LISTING AND VALUING THE PROPERTY OF MERCHANTS AND MANUFACTURERS, AND OF BANKERS, EXCHANGE BROKERS, AND STOCK JOBBERS, &c.

SEC. 12. Every person that shall own, or have in his possession, or subject to his control, any personal property within this State, with authority to sell the same, which shall have been purchased either in or out of this State, with a view to being sold at an advanced price or profit, or which shall have been consigned to him from any place out of this State for the purpose of being sold at any place within this State, shall be held to be a merchant; and when he shall be by this act required to make out and deliver to the assessor, a statement of his other personal property, he shall state the value of such property appertaining to his business as a merchant; and in estimating the value thereof, he shall take as the criterion the average value of all such articles of personal property, which he shall have had from time to time in his possession or under his control, during the year next previous to the time of making such statement, if so long he shall have been engaged in business; and if not, then during such time as he shall have been so engaged; and the average shall be made up by taking the amount in value on hand, as nearly as may be, in each month of the next preceding year in which the person making such statement shall have been engaged in business, adding together such amounts and dividing the aggregate amount thereof by the number of months such person may have been in business during the preceding year: Provided, that no consignee shall be required to list for taxation the value of property, the product of this State, which shall have been consigned to him, for sale or otherwise, from any place within the State, nor the value of any property consigned to him from any other place for the sole purpose of being stored or forwarded: Provided, he shall, in either case, have no interest in such property, or any profit to be derived from its sale; and the word person, as used in this and the succeeding sections, shall be held to mean and include firm, company, and incorporation.

SEC. 13. Every person who shall purchase, receive, or hold any personal property of any description, for the purpose of adding to the value thereof by any process of manufacturing, refining, rectifying, or by the combination of different materials, with a view of making a gain or profit by so doing, shall be held to be a manufacturer; and he shall, when he is required to make and deliver to the assessor a statement of the amount of his other personal property subject to taxation, include in his statement the average value, estimated as provided in the preceding section, of all articles purchased, received, or otherwise held, for the purpose of being used in whole or in part in any process or operation of manufacturing, combining, rectifying, or refining, which from time to time he shall have had on hand during the year next previous to the time of making such statement, if so long he shall have been engaged in such manufacturing business, and if not, then during the time he shall have been so engaged.

SEC. 14. Every person owning a manufacturing establishment of any kind, and every manufacturer, shall list as part of his manufacturer's stock, the value of all engines and machinery, of every description, used or designed to be used in any process of refining or manufacturing, (except such fixtures as shall have been considered a part of any parcel or parcels of real property), including all tools and implements of every kind, used or designed to be used for the aforesaid purposes.

SEC. 15. Every person who shall have money employed in the business of dealing in coin, notes, or bills of exchange, or in the business of dealing in, or buying, or shaving any kind of bills of exchange, checks, drafts, bank notes, promissory notes, bonds, or other writing obligatory, or stocks of any kind or description whatsoever, shall be held to be a banker, broker, or stock-jobber; and he shall, when he is required to make out and deliver to the assessor a statement of the amount or value of his other personal property subject to taxation, also include in his statement the average value, estimated as provided in the twelfth section of this act, of all moneys, notes, bills of exchange, bonds, stocks, or other property appertaining to his business as a banker, broker, or stock-jobber, which he shall have had from time to time in his possession or

under his control during the year next previous to the time of making such statement, if so long he shall have been engaged in such business, and if not, then during the time he shall have been so engaged.

SEC. 16. That when any person shall commence merchandizing in any county after the first day of June in any year, the average value of whose personal property employed in merchandizing shall not have been previously entered on the assessor's list for taxation, in said county, such person shall report to the auditor of the county, the probable average value of the personal property by him intended to be employed in merchandizing until the first day of May thereafter, and shall pay into the treasury of such county, a sum which shall bear the same proportion to the levy for all purposes, on the average value so employed, as the time from the day on which he shall commence merchandising as aforesaid, to the first of May next succeeding, shall bear to one year: Provided, that if the person so listing his merchant's capital, shall present a bona fide receipt from the treasurer of any county, in which such merchant's capital had been previously listed and taxed for the amount of the taxes assessed and by him paid on the same capital for the same year, then and in that case it shall be a receipt from paying taxes again on such capital.

SEC. 17. That when any person shall commence or engage in the business of dealing in stocks of any description, or in buying or shaving any kinds of bills of exchange, checks, drafts, bank notes, promissory notes, or other kind of writing obligatory, as mentioned in the fifteenth section of this act, after the first day of June in any year, the average value of whose personal property employed in such business shall not have been previously entered on the assessor's list for taxation, in said county, such person shall report to the auditor of the county, the probable average value of the personal property by him intended to be employed in such business until the first day of May thereafter, and shall pay into the treasury of such county, a sum which shall bear the same proportion to the levy for all purposes, on the average value so employed, as the time from the day on which he shall commence or engage in such business aforesaid, to the first day of May next succeeding, shall bear to one year.

SEC. 18. That if any person shall commence or engage in the business of merchandising, banking, brokerage, or stock-jobbing aforesaid, as aforesaid, and shall not within one month thereafter report to the county auditor, and make payment to the county treasurer, as before required, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of 2 per cent on the value of personal property by him so employed, to be ascertained as near as may be by the testimony of witnesses, and recovered before any justice of the peace, or court having jurisdiction thereof, by an action of debt in the name of the county treasurer, for the use of the county.

ON LISTING AND VALUING THE PROPERTY OF BANKS AND BANKING COMPANIES, AND OTHER CORPORATIONS.

SEC. 19. It shall be the duty of the president and cashier of every bank and banking company that shall have been, or may hereafter be, incorporated by the laws of this State, and having the right to issue bills for circulation as money, to make out and return under oath, to the auditor of the county in which such bank or banking company may be situated, in the month of May, annually, a written statement, containing:—

1st. The average amount of notes and bills discounted or purchased by such bank or banking company, which amount shall include all the loans or discounts of such bank or banking company, whether originally made or renewed during the year aforesaid, or at any time previous; whether made on bills of exchange, notes, bonds, mortgages, or any other evidence of indebtedness, at their actual value in money, whether due, previous to, during, or after, the period aforesaid; and on which such bank or banking company has at any time reserved or received, or is entitled to receive, any profit or other consideration whatever, either in the shape of interest, discount, exchange, or otherwise.

2d. The average amount of all other moneys, effects, or dues of every description belonging to such bank or banking company, loaned, invested, or otherwise used or employed with a view to profit, or upon which such bank or banking company receives or is entitled to receive interest.

SEC. 20. To ascertain the amount of the notes and bills discounted and purchased, and all other moneys, effects or dues of every description belonging to such bank or banking company, loaned, invested or otherwise used or employed, with a view to profit, or upon which such bank or banking company receives or is entitled to receive

interest, or be returned as aforesaid, there shall be taken as a criterion, the average amount of the aforesaid items for each month during the year next previous to the time of making such statement, if so long such bank or banking company shall have been engaged in business, and if not, then during the time such bank or such banking company shall have been engaged in business; and the average shall be made by adding together the amount so found belonging to such bank or banking company in each month so engaged in business, and dividing the same by the number of months so added together.

SEC. 21. The president, secretary, or principal accounting officer of every canal or slack water navigation company, railroad company, turnpike or plank road company, bridge company, insurance company, telegraph company, or other joint-stock company, except banking or other corporations whose taxation is specifically provided for in this act, for whatever purpose they may have been created, whether incorporated by any law of this State or not, shall list for taxation, at its real value, its real and personal property, moneys and credits, within this State, in manner following:

In all cases, returns shall be made to the several auditors of the respective counties where such property may be situated, together with a statement of the amount of said property, which is situated in each township, town, city or ward therein.

The value of all movable property shall be added to the stationary and fixed property and real estate, and apportioned to such wards, towns, cities, and townships, *pro rata*, in proportion to the value of the real estate and fixed property in said ward, town, city, or township.

And all property so listed shall be subject to, and pay the same taxes as other property listed in such ward, town, city, or township.

It shall be the duty of the accounting officer aforesaid to make return to the Auditor of State, during the month of May of each year, of the aggregate amount of all property, real and personal, by him returned, as required by the provisions of this act, to the several auditors of the respective counties in which the same may be located.

If the county auditor to whom returns are made, is of the opinion that false and incorrect valuations have been made, or that the property of the corporation or association has not been listed at its full value, or that it has not been listed in the location where it properly belongs, or in cases where no return has been made to the county auditor, he is hereby required to proceed to have the same valued and assessed in the same manner as is prescribed in the several sections of this act regulating the duties of county auditors: Provided, that nothing in this act shall be so construed as to tax any stock or interest in any joint-stock company held by the State of Ohio: Provided, that every agency of an insurance company incorporated by the authority of any other State or government, shall return to the auditor of the county in which the office or agency of such company may be kept, in the month of May annually, the amount of the gross receipt of its agency, which shall be entered on the tax list of the proper county, and subject to the same rate of taxation for all purposes, that other personal property is subject to at the place where located.

SEC. 22. The Ohio Life Insurance and Trust Company, by its president or cashier, shall in the month of May annually, return under oath, to the county auditors of the several counties of the State, a statement of its moneys loaned, and dues of every description in such counties respectively, which amount shall be entered upon the tax list of the proper counties, and taxed the average rate per cent of the taxes, for all purposes levied upon the real and personal property of such counties; and the president or cashier of said company, shall, in the month of May annually, return to the auditor of the county in which the principal office of said company is kept, a statement of the amount and value of the notes and bills discounted or purchased, and all other moneys, effects or dues of every description belonging to its banking department, and loaned, invested or otherwise used or employed with a view to profit, or upon which said company receives, or is entitled to receive interest, and which amount shall not include its moneys loaned in the several counties of the State, returned and taxed as aforesaid; which amounts shall be ascertained in the manner prescribed by the 19th and 20th sections of this act, and shall be entered on the tax list and taxed in the same manner as is provided by this act, for the taxation of other banking companies.

PROPERTY AND TAXES OF WORCESTER.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1850, (vol. xxii.,) we gave, under our series of papers relating to "COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES,

an elaborate description of the city of Worcester, embracing, among other matters, the progress of wealth and population from 1768 to 1850. The value of property assessed for taxation had increased from $296,542, in 1800, to $10,750,282, in 1849. The assessment of taxes for 1852, recently completed, shows the assessed value of property at the present time to be $12,575,566. In the previous year (1851) it was $11,925,055, showing an increase in the valuation in 1852 over 1851 of $650,511. The rate of taxation on property is $6 50 on the $1,000. In 1851, it was $6 75, showing a reduction of 25 cents on the thousand. This taxation, it will be understood, includes the County, School, Highway, and Water taxes. The amount of appropriations by the city, for all purposes in 1851, was $75,500. This year (1852) it is $85,700. Stephen Salisbury pays a tax of $3,830, and his property is valued by the assessors at $589,000.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN MAINE.

By the official abstract of the returns of the banks in Maine, as they existed on the first Monday in May, 1852, it appears that there are 39 banks in the State, 7 of which are in Bangor, 6 in Portland, 3 each in Augusta and Bath, 2 each in Saco, Waterville, Brunswick, and 1 each in Topsham, Biddeford, Belfast, Calais, Eastport, Gardiner, Wiscasset, Waldoboro', Hallowell, South Berwick, Skowhegan, and Thomaston.

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock	$3,923,000
Bills in circulation	3,254,882
Net profits on hand	167,174
Balances due other banks	93,455
Deposits bearing interest	1,460,283
" "	65,343
Total amount due from the banks	$8,964,138

RESOURCES.

Specie in bank	$622,300
Real estate	118,523
Bills of banks in the State	139,472
Bills of banks elsewhere	84,891
Balances due from other banks	956,489
Due to the banks, excepting balances	7,042,551
Total resources	$8,964,138

The last semi-annual dividend varied from 3 to 5 per cent—averaging more than 4 per cent. Acts were passed at the late session of the Legislature to incorporate new banks at Bangor, Hallowell, Lewiston Falls, Winthrop, Orono, Bowdoinham, and Richmond.

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING SEPTEMBER 1, 1852.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, Sept. 1, 1852.

Amount outstanding of the several issues prior to 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office		$107,861 64
Amount outstanding of the issue of the 22d July, 1846, as per records of this office		11,700 00
Amount outstanding of the issue of 28th of January, 1847, as per records of this office		8,350 00
		$127,911 64
Deduct cancelled notes in the hands of accounting officers, all under acts prior to 22d July, 1846		150 00
Total		$127,761 64

PROGRESS OF BANK STOCKS IN BOSTON.

The following table, prepared by JOSEPH G. MARTIN, broker, and a correspondent of the Boston *Evening Gazette*, will give the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* a correct idea of the gradual and steady rise in bank stocks for several years, but it is not claimed that the figures given are the *exact* price of actual sales, though care has been taken to have them as near as possible a fair representation of the market value at the several dates mentioned:—

Boston Banks.	Sept. 1847.	Sept. '48	Sept. '49.	Sept. '50.	Sept. '51.	Sept '52
Atlantic	99	91	103	112	112	113½
Atlas	98	93	99	103	102	107
Blackstone	...	...	...	...	new	106
Boston	55	54	56	57	57	58
Boylston	103	102	105	108	110	115½
City	100	93	101	103	103	108½
Cochituate	...	...	new	103	103	105
Columbian	100	94	100	101	103	108½
Commerce	...	...	...	new	101	109
Eagle	102	93	102	105	104	108½
Exchange	96	93	101	106	104	111½
Faneuil Hall	...	...	...	...	new	107½
Freeman's	102	102	105	107	110	114
Globe	105	101	105	110	111	114
Granite	99	97	100	103	110	108½
Grocers'	...	new	94	99	110	108½
Hamilton	102	...	100	104	106	114
Market	79	75	81	84	85	87½
Massachusetts	245	235	245	250	255	260
Mechanics'	102	90	100	103	105	110
Merchants'	104	100	107	111	111	114½
New England	104	101	107	110	111	114
North	96	90	97	101	101	107
North Ameria	...	...	...	new	102	109
Shawmut	96	90	99	106	107	110½
Shoe and Leather Dealers'	109	109	112	115	110	113
State	60	54	61	64	63	66
Suffolk	125	120	128	135	140	130
Traders'	99	92	99	105	106	111
Tremont	99	93	102	105	106	113½
Union	103	100	103	105	110	114
Washington	96	91	95	99	102	106

DAMAGES ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

By a Revised Law of the State of New York, the following damages on bills drawn or negotiated in this State, and protested for non-payment, are allowed, viz:—

Bills drawn on the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or District of Columbia, 3 per cent.

North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent.

Any other State or Territory of the United States, or any other place on or adjacent to this continent, and north of the Equator, and any other British or foreign possessions in the West Indies, or elsewhere on the Western Atlantic Ocean, or any port or place in Europe, 10 per cent.

SEC. 19. Such damages shall be in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and all other charges incurred previous to, and at the time of giving notice of non-payment, but the holder of such bill shall be entitled to demand and recover lawful interest upon the aggregate amount of the principal sum specified in such bill, and of the damages thereon, from the time at which notice of protest for non-payment shall have been given, and payment of such principal sum shall have been demanded.

SEC. 20. If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account of the United States, the amount due thereon, and of the damages herein allowed for th

non-payment thereof, shall be ascertained and determined without any reference to the rate of exchange existing between this State and the place on which such bill shall have been drawn, at the time of the demand of payment, or of notice of non-payment.

SEC. 21. If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account or currency of any foreign country, then the amount due, exclusive of the damages payable thereof, shall be ascertained and determined by the rate of exchange or the value of such foreign currency at the time of the demand of payment.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

In preceding pages of the present number of this Magazine, we have given the annual statement of the Trade and Commerce of New Orleans for the twelve months ending August 31st, 1852, as originally prepared for the *New Orleans Price Current*. The subjoined statistics of imports, exports, arrivals and clearances of shipping, prices of produce and merchandise, &c., &c., are derived from the same reliable source. In the *Merchants' Magazine* for November, 1840, (vol. iii.,) we published tabular statements of the trade of New Orleans from 1830 to 1840, which in connection with similar statements in succeeding volumes forms a complete statistical history of the commercial growth of that city from 1830 to 1852:—

TABLE SHOWING THE RECEIPTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES FROM THE INTERIOR DURING THE YEAR ENDING 31ST AUGUST, 1852, WITH THEIR ESTIMATED AVERAGE AND TOTAL VALUE.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Apples.....bbls.	20,356	$3 00	$61,068
Bacon, assorted.....hhds. & casks	46,734	75 00	3,505,050
" " .....boxes	3,626	35 00	126,910
" hams.....hhds. & trcs.	38,488	70 00	2,694,160
" in bulk.....lbs.	281,280	08	22,502
Bagging.....pieces	60,044	13 00	780,572
Bale rope.....coils	90,272	7 50	677,040
Beans.....bbls.	6,598	10 00	65,980
Butter.....kegs & firkins	44,786	8 00	358,288
" .....bbls.	1,778	30 00	53,340
Beeswax	171	45 00	7,695
Beef	41,227	12 00	494,724
" trcs.	11,523	15 00	172,845
" dried.....lbs.	26,100	08	2,088
Buffalo robes.....packs	1,300	75 00	97,500
Cotton.....bales	1,429,183	34 00	48,592,222
Corn meal.....bbls.	2,514	3 00	7,542
" in ear.	163,008	70	114,105
" shelled.....sacks	1,397,132	1 20	1,676,558
Cheese.....boxes	72,441	3 50	253,543
Candles	53,936	6 00	323,616
Cider.....bbls.	300	3 00	900
Coal, western	850,000	50	425,000
Dried apples and peaches	804	5 00	4,020
Feathers.....bags	2,065	35 00	72,275
Flaxseed.....trcs.	519	10 00	5,190
Flour.....bbls.	927,212	4 00	3,708,848
Furs.....hhds., bundles & boxes	2,136	.....	1,000,000
Hemp.....bales	17,149	15 00	257,235
Hides	123,687	2 00	247,374
Hay.....bales	53,434	3 00	160,302
Iron, pig.....tons	62	30 00	1,860
Lard.....bbls. & trcs.	125,496	25 00	3,137,400
" .....kegs	157,689	5 00	788,445
Leather.....bundles	7,572	25 00	189,300

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Lime, western.....bbls.	42,305	$1 25	$52,881
Lead.....pigs	267,564	3 20	856,204
" bar.....kegs & boxes	1,138	20 00	22,760
" white.....kegs	1,368	3 00	4,104
Molasses, (estimated crop,).....gallons	18,300,000	22	4,026,000
Oats.....bbls & sacks	463,273	75	347,454
Onions.....bbls.	17,184	2 00	34,368
Oil, linseed.....	758	26 00	19,708
" castor.....	4,291	28 00	120,148
" lard.....	14,114	28 00	395,192
Potatoes.....	228,095	2 00	456,190
Pork.....trcs. & bbls.	276,606	16 00	4,425,696
" .....boxes	303	35 00	10,605
" .....hhds.	2,478	80 00	198,240
" in bulk.....lbs.	8,800,000	07	616,000
Porter and ale.....bbls.	406	10 00	4,060
Packing Yarn.....reels	2,093	7 00	14,651
Skins, deer.....packs	998	25 00	24,950
" bear.....	16	15 00	240
Shot.....kegs	2,704	25 00	67,600
Soap.....boxes	5,308	3 00	15,924
Staves.....M.	7,319	38 00	278,122
Sugar, (estimated crop,).....hhds.	236,547	50 00	11,827,350
Spanish moss.....bales	4,372	8 00	34,976
Tallow.....bbls.	1,307	20 00	26,140
Tobacco, leaf.....hhds	75,816	75 00	5,686,200
" stripe.....	11,741	125 00	1,467,625
" stems.....	2,118	20 00	42,360
" Chewing.....kegs & boxes	4,779	20 00	95,580
Twine.....bundles & boxes	2,341	8 00	18,728
Vinegar.....bbls.	92	6 00	552
Whisky.....	146,352	7 50	1,097,640
Window glass.....boxes	19,251	2 50	48,127
Wheat.....bbls. & sacks	64,918	2 00	129,836
Other various articles, estimated at.....			5,500,000
Total value.....			$108,051,708
Total in 1850-51.....			106,924,083
Total in 1849-50.....			96,897,878

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR THE YEARS COMMENCING 1ST SEPTEMBER AND ENDING 31ST AUGUST.

Whither exported.	1851-2.	1850-1.
Liverpool.....bales	751,172	562,277
London.....	.....	.....
Glasgow & Greenock.	11,700	15,418
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	7,211	4,678
Cork, Belfast, &c....	2,159	....
Havre.....	183,054	125,067
Bordeaux.....	1,554	1,164
Marseilles.....	4,308	4,131
Nantes, Cette & Rouen	7,338	....
Amsterdam.....	259	489
Rotterdam & Ghent...	1,507	1,468
Bremen.....	10,248	12,905
Antwerp, &c.....	24,562	10,366
Hamburg.....	17,694	3,235
Gottenburg.....	6,634	8,180
Spain and Gibraltar..	47,645	41,018
Havana, Mexico, &c..	11,919	565
Genoa, Trieste, &c....	75,093	42,537
China.....	.....	.....
Other foreign ports ..	15,046	11,148

Whither exported.	1851-2.	1850-1.
New York.....	101,988	52,398
Boston.....	128,629	82,540
Providence, R. I.....	4,561	.....
Philadelphia.....	15,594	14,867
Baltimore.....	4,745	2,511
Portsmouth.....	....	....
Other coastwise ports.	45	1
Western States.....	1,200	500
Total.....	1,485,815	997,458

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain.....	772,242	582,873
France.....	196,254	130,362
North of Europe....	75,950	47,786
S. of Europe & China.	134,657	84,120
Coastwise.....	256,712	152,817
Total.....	1,485,815	997,458

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR TWO YEARS COMMENCING 1ST SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING 31ST AUGUST.

Whither exported.	1851-2.	1850-1.
Liverpool .....hhds.	7,844	6,457
London	5,197	6,192
Glasgow & Greenock...	....	....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c...	982	574
Cork, Belfast, &c	....	....
Havre.....	9,056	659
Bordeaux	1,916	517
Marseilles..... ...	2,976	3,006
Nantes, Cette & Rouen .	....	....
Amsterdam.....	1,157	....
Rotterdam & Ghent....	222	712
Bremen	15,515	7,071
Antwerp, &c.....	7,618	570
Hamburg	475	75
Gottenburg.....	1,229	941
Spain and Gibraltar ...	7,662	7,454
Havana, Mexico, &c....	....	....
Genoa, Trieste, &c.....	11,134	5,613
China.....	....	....
Other foreign ports	3,533	816

Whither exported.	1851-2.	1850-1.
New York.....	13,347	10,087
Boston.....	1,941	1,594
Providence, R. I.....	....	....
Philadelphia.....	1,296	1,118
Baltimore.....	385	754
Portsmouth.....	....	....
Other coastwise ports...	230	291
Western States.....	....	....
Total.....	93,715	54,501

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain.....	14,023	13,223
France.....	13,948	4,182
North of Europe	26,814	9,393
S. of Europe and China.	21,731	13,859
Coastwise	17,199	13,844
Total.....	93,715	54,501

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR TWO YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED,) FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

	1851-2.		1850-1.	
Whither exported.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York.....	18,225	134	13,595	655
Philadelphia.....	6,489	946	10,264	867
Charleston, S. C	3,524	1,685	3,517	660
Savannah.....	729	99	1,702	89
Providence and Bristol, R. I.....	....	....	....	....
Boston.....	611	21	733	27
Baltimore.....	6,400	38	3,670	237
Norfolk..... } Richmond and Petersburg, Va..... }	4,585	338	4,072	120
Alexandria, D. C.....	1,156	...	552	....
Mobile.....	5,327	....	3,840	2,266
Apalachicola and Pensacola.....	1,399	416	1,071	254
Other ports.....	2,348	2,857	1,131	3,469
Total.....	50,793	6,534	44,147	8,644

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR TWO YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED,) FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

	1851-2.		1850-1.	
Whither exported.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York.....	130	26,703	509	22,646
Philadelphia.....	93	6,884	...	7,785
Charleston, S C.....	...	9,519	9	7,031
Savannah,.....	...	2,873	...	2,981
Providence and Bristol, R. I.....	319	143	...	....
Boston.....	...	1,409	...	2,172
Baltimore	...	11,081	...	2,862
Norfolk ..... } Richmond and Petersburg, Va..... }	41	5,323	...	2,313
Alexandria, D. C	...	2,127	...	631
Mobile.....	...	16,187	...	10,398
Apalachicola and Pensacola.....	...	7,207	...	4,578
Other ports.....	...	5,151	118	3,677
Total.....	583	94,107	636	67,024

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKY, AND CORN, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1852.

Ports.	Flour, bbls.	Pork, bbls.	Bacon, hhds.	Lard, kegs.	Beef, bbls.	Lead, Pigs.	Whisky. bbls.	Corn, sacks.
New York.....	94,638	57,356	12,685	256,738	9,295	149,781	6,553	133,488
Boston.....	61,124	62,702	5,431	208,613	12,285	73,895	1,845	148,524
Philadelphia	24	4,349	2,772	20,686	200	31,118	1,888	13,905
Baltimore	.....	14,164	2,334	32,318	....	.....	2,538	.....
Oth. coastw. ports.	179,911	25,846	26,173	51,664	752	1,645	68,311	336,719
Great Britain.....	138,569	1,263	....	61,923	15,109	.....	....	192,288
Cuba.....	6,681	946	812	158,447	15	.....	....	37,466
Other foreign ports	63,764	5,622	96	2,154	551	500	21	12,384
Total...	544,711	172,748	50,303	792,543	38,207	256,939	81,156	874,774

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF MIDDLING TO FAIR COTTON AT NEW ORLEANS ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH DURING A PERIOD OF FIVE YEARS.

	1851–2. Cents.	1850–1. Cents.	1849–50. Cents.	1848–9. Cents.	1847–8. Cents.
September.....	9 a 10	9 a 11	9⅛ a 11⅛	5⅛ a ..	10⅛ a 12
October.....	8 9½	12⅛ 13⅝	9⅛ 12	5½ 7	10 11
November.....	7 8½	13½ 14½	9⅞ 11	5 6	7½ 8½
December	7½ 8⅜	13½ 14	10½ 11½	5½ 6½	6½ 7⅜
January	7⅜ 8½	12⅜ 14½	10½ 11⅛	5⅜ 6⅛	6½ 7⅜
February	7½ 8⅜	12½ 13⅞	11⅛ 12⅜	6½ 7½	6⅜ 8
March.....	7⅜ 9	10½ 13	10⅜ 12½	6½ 7½	6½ 7⅜
April.....	7⅜ 9	10½ 12⅜	10⅜ 12	6½ 7½	6½ 7⅜
May.....	7⅜ 9½	9½ 11½	11⅜ 13	6½ 7⅜	5 6½
June	9½ ..	8⅜ 11	11½ 13½	7 8⅜	5½ 7½
July.....	9½ ..	8 10½	11⅜ 13½	7 8⅜	5½ 7½
August.....	9½ ..	7 9½	12½ 13½	9 ..	5⅜ 7½

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF SUGAR, MOLASSES, FLOUR, CORN, AND PORK, ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST, 1852.

	Sugar. Cents.	Molasses. Cents.	Flour. Dollars.	Pork. Mess. Dollars.	Pork. Prime. Dollars.
September	3⅜ a 6½	23 a 30	3½ a 5	16½ a 17	15 a 15½
October.....	3⅜ 6½	23 30	3⅜ 4⅜	15½ 16	15 15½
November.....	3 6⅜	18 27	3½ 4½	13½ 14½	13 ..
December.....	2½ 6	23½ 24	3½ 4⅜	14½ 15	none.
January.....	2 5½	17 20½	3⅞ 5½	14 14½	12 12⅜
February.....	2 5½	15 20½	4 5½	14⅜ 15½	13½ ..
March....	2½ 5½	20 25	4½ 4½	15 15½	13½ 13½
April.....	2½ 5⅜	15 26	3⅜ 4⅛	16½ 16⅜	13½ 13⅜
May	2½ 5⅜	20 28	3½ 3⅜	17½ 17⅜	15 ..
June	3½ 6	23 28	3⅜ 3⅞	17 17½	15 15½
July.....	3½ 6	20 28	3⅜ 4½	20 20½	18 ..
August.....	3½ 6½	18 28	3½ 3⅞	19⅜ 20½	18 ..

COMPARATIVE ARRIVALS, EXPORTS, AND STOCKS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO AT NEW ORLEANS, FOR TEN YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER EACH YEAR.

	Cotton, bales.			Tobacco, hhds.		
Years.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1851–52....	1,429,183	1,435,815	9,758	89,675	93,715	18,831
1850–51....	995,036	997,458	15,390	64,030	54,501	23,871
1849–50....	837,723	838,591	16,612	60,304	57,955	14,842
1848–49....	1,142,382	1,167,303	15,480	52,335	52,896	13,293
1847–48....	1,213,805	1,201,897	37,401	55,882	60,364	14,851
1846–47....	740,669	724,508	23,493	55,588	50,376	22,336
1845–46....	1,053,633	1,054,857	6,832	72,896	62,045	17,924
1844–45....	979,238	984,616	7,556	71,493	68,679	7,673
1843–44....	910,854	895,375	12,934	82,435	84,249	4,859
1842–43....	1,089,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,891	4,873

men from various sources, to which we invite the attention of all who are interested. The production of coffee at sundry times is estimated by various authorities to be as follows:—

	1841.	1842.	1848.	1851.	1852.
Brazil .....million pounds	160	174	270	300	300
Java	112	125	140	100	120
St. Domingo.....	25	38	35	40	30
Cuba and Porto Rico	56	50	50	30	25
British West Indies	12	10	12	7	5
French & Dutch West Indies...	6	7	5	2	2
Sumatra.....	12	15	10	10	8
Mocha, &c.....	10	8	6	5	3
Ceylon.....	10	15	25	25	30
Laguyra, &c.....	25	30	30	25	20
Costa Rica	2	3	5	5	5
Total.....	430	471	587	559	548

The consumption of coffee in Europe by the average of various authorities in 1848, was 400,000,000 lbs.; the consumption of the United States and British America in 1848, was estimated to be 150,000,000 lbs.; total consumption in 1848, 550,000,000 lbs.

The increase of consumption in Europe is estimated to be 2½ per cent per annum, which would give for 1852, 440,000,000 lbs.; the increase in the United States is estimated to be 7½ per cent per annum, which would give for 1852, 200,000,000 lbs.; total consumption 1852, 640,000,000 lbs.

The stock of coffee in Europe in first hands on July 1st, was 125,000,000 lbs., or about 3½ months' supply.

The stock of coffee in the United States in first hands, on July 1st, was 25,000,000 lbs., or about 1½ months' supply.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH CADIZ, SPAIN.

We are indebted to Alexander Burton, United States Consul, for the following statement of American vessels arriving at the port of Cadiz, for the six months ending June 30th, 1852:—

Date of Arrival.	Name.	Where from.	Tons—95lbs.	Crew. Am.	Crew. For.
January 15	Bark Columbia.....	Charleston.....	288.82	9	3
" 19	Ship Berlin	New Orleans....	613.02	14	6
" 25	Ship Robert.....	Havre.....	777.65	16	4
February 5	Ship H. H. Boody.....	Alicant	664.86	13	6
" 19	Ship Euphrasia.....	Havre.....	486.75	11	3
" 19	Ship Cha. Humberston....	Havre.....	1,099.74	16	7
March 18	Brig Itasca.....	Wilmington.....	242.30	8	3
" 14	Bark Commodore	New York.....	199.12	6	2
" 24	B'g. Sch. Helen F. Ryder..	Wilmington.....	195.36	8	0
" 26	Brig Smyrna.....	New York.....	196.28	7	1
" 26	Ship Squantum.....	New Orleans....	646.74	15	5
April 7	B'g. Sch. Prairie.....	Wilmington.....	190.07	7	2
May 4	Ship Ashburton.....	New Orleans....	449.23	11	3
" 4	Ship Ascutna.....	Boston.....	428.82	12	1
" 18	Ship Brutus.....	New Orleans....	549.50	11	5
" 18	Ship Essex.....	Genoa.....	698.80	16	3
" 18	Bark Hesper	London.....	391.75	11	2
June 2	Brig Hollander.....	New York.....	267.37	9	1
" 5	Bark Tyringham	Liverpool.....	608.45	13	4
" 16	Ship Chasca.....	Havre	658.88	16	4
" 16	Ship Robert Hooper.....	London.....	756.81	15	2
" 21	Brig Athena.....	Havre	299.50	12	0
			10,710.42	256	67

Total, 22 vessels, of which number,

Ves'ls.	Tons.	Men.			
10	6,443	174	Entered from European ports in ballast.		
12	4,267	149	" " the United States with cargo composed of—		
—	—	—	Staves.....	208 long thousand.	
22	10,710	323	Ice.....	200 tons.	
			Tobacco.....	3,080 hhds.	For account
			Rosin.....	420 barrels.	of the Spanish
			Ship Timber..	6 cargoes.	Go. contract's.

THE CLEARANCES WERE AS FOLLOWS:—

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
For the United States with cargo.....	17	9,588	275
European ports in ballast.....	5	1,122	47
	22	10,710	322

THE EXPORTS BY AMERICAN VESSELS WERE:—

To the United States, Salt.....	527 lasts, or 37,944 bushels equal		
" " Wine.....	310 pipes.		thereto.
" " Liquorice Paste.....	336 cases.		
" " Cork and Corkwood....	297 bales.		
" " Lead.....	50 tons.		

During the last six months 15 foreign vessels have arrived at Cadiz from the United States (8 English, 4 Swede, 2 Sicilian, and one Russian,) with cargoes consisting of 343,000 staves, six cargoes of ship timber, and 118 barrels of rosin, the rosin and timber for account of government contractors. Within the same period 12 vessels (11 English and 1 Swede,) have touched at Cadiz for the Atlantic ports of the United States, with salt 603 lasts, or 43,416 bushels, 324 pipes wine, 355 cases liquorice, 736 bales cork and corkwood, and 1,752 pigs lead; and for California, two cargoes of English, French, and Spanish merchandise.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

OF IMPORTS IN ORIGINAL PACKAGES EXPORTED TO MEXICO.

AN ACT AUTHORISING IMPORTED GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE, ENTERED AND BONDED FOR WAREHOUSING IN PURSUANCE OF LAW, TO BE EXPORTED BY CERTAIN ROUTES TO PORTS OR PLACES IN MEXICO.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That any imported goods in the original packages, which shall have been duly entered and bonded, in pursuance of the warehousing act, of sixth August, eighteen hundred and forty-six, may be withdrawn from warehouse at any time within two years from the original importation for immediate exportation without payment of duties, under the provisions of the act aforesaid, to Chihuahua in Mexico, by the routes designated in the first section of the act of third March, eighteen hundred and forty-five, or by such other routes as may be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury; and likewise, that any imported merchandise duly entered and bonded at Point Isabel, in the collection district of Brazos de Santiago, or imported and bonded at any other port of the United States, and transported thence in bond and duly re-warehoused at Point Isabel, in pursuance of the warehousing law of August sixth, eighteen hundred and forty-six, may be withdrawn from warehouse at any time within two years from the date of original importation into the United States for immediate exportation, without payment of duties under the provisions of the warehousing act aforesaid, to ports and places in Mexico, by land or water, or partly by land and partly by water, or by such routes as may be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That any imported merchandise duly entered and bonded at any port of the United States, may be withdrawn from warehouse at any time within two years from the date of importation, without payment of duties, in pursuance of the provisions of the warehousing law of sixth August, eighteen hundred and forty-six, for immediate exportation to San Fernando, Paso del Norte, and

Chihuahua, in Mexico, through the port of La Vaca, in the collection district of Saluria in the State of Texas, and be transhipped inland thence to San Antonio in said State, and from the latter place to the destinations in Mexico aforesaid, either by way of Eagle Pass, the Presidio del Norte, and San Elizario, all on the Rio Grande; and the Secretary of the Treasury shall be, and is hereby authorized, to prescribe such regulations, not inconsistent with law, as he may deem proper and necessary, respecting the packing, marking, inspection, proof of due delivery at their foreign destinations, of the imports authorized by this and the foregoing sections of this act, to be exported from warehouse to ports and places in Mexico, and for the due protection in other respects of the public revenue.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint inspectors of the customs to reside at San Antonio, Eagle Pass, the Presidio del Norte, and San Elizario, or at such other points on the route as he may designate, not exceeding four in number, who shall each receive an annual salary of two hundred and fifty dollars, and who shall make a report semi-annually to the Secretary of the Treasury, of all the trade that passes under inspection, stating the number of packages, the description of goods, their value, and the names of the exporters.

SEC. 4. And be it further enacted, That no goods, wares, or merchandise, exported out of the limits of the United States, according to the provisions of this act, shall be voluntarily landed or brought into the United States; and on being so landed or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited, and the same proceedings shall be had for their condemnation, and the distribution of the proceeds of their sales, as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported; and every person concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States, shall be liable to a penalty of four hundred dollars.

SEC. 5. And be it further enacted, That all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of the foregoing act, be, and the same are, hereby repealed.

Approved August 30, 1852.

Since the passage of the foregoing act, the following circular from the Treasury Department, has been forwarded to the collectors and other officers of customs, explanatory &c. of the provisions of said act:—

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, September 13th, 1852.

The attention of the collectors and other officers of the customs, is called to the following instructions, to be pursued in carrying into effect the provisions of the annexed Act of Congress, approved 30th August, 1852, entitled "An Act authorising imported goods, wares, and merchandise, entered and bonded for warehousing in pursuance of law, to be exported by certain routes, to ports and places in Mexico."

1st. Directly by water to ports or places in Mexico lying on the sea coast or Rio Grande.

2d. By land or water from Point Isabel to Brownsville, or Loredo; thence by water to places in Mexico lying on the Rio Grande. No goods, under transportation, to be allowed warehousing privileges at either Brownsville or Loredo.

The first section of the before-mentioned act, modifies so much of the act allowing drawback on goods exported to Chihuahua, &c., approved 3d March, 1845, and likewise so much of the act to establish the collection district of Brazos de Santiago, as requires the duties to be paid prior to exportation thereof, and authorizes any imported goods, in the original packages, which shall have been duly entered and bonded in pursuance of the Warehousing Act of 6th August, 1846, to be withdrawn from warehouse, at any time within two years from date of original importation, for immediate exportation, *without payment of duties.* The section mentioned also modifies the provisions of the Act of 1849, respecting the transportation of goods by land from Point Isabel to Fort Brown, and authorizes their transportation from the first mentioned place to ports and places in Mexico, by land or water, or partly by land and partly by water, or by such routes as may be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Until otherwise directed by the Department, the exportation of warehoused goods for *immediate* transportation, from Point Isabel to Mexico, will be by the following routes, to wit:—

Goods, wares, and merchandise, proposed to be exported to San Fernando, Paso del Norte, and Chihuahua, by the routes indicated in the second section of the Act,

must be entered for exportation in conformity with law at the port where the same is withdrawn from warehouse, and be transported by water to the port of Lavaca, in the collection district of Saluria, Texas, and to be transhipped inland thence to San Antonio; and from the latter place to the before mentioned destinations in Mexico, either by way of Eagle Pass, the Presidio del Norte, and San Elizario, all on the Rio Grande River. On the arrival of any such goods at the port of Lavaca, they will not be required to be rewarehoused, but, after proper examination and inspection by the officer of the customs at said port, will be allowed to proceed without delay to San Antonio, and thence, by the routes indicated, to their destinations in Mexico. At the port where exportation entry is made, bond will be taken in double the amount of the duties, for safe transportation of the goods through the United States, and their landing in Mexico; said bond to correspond with form E respecting exportations to Canada, attached to warehousing circular, No. 34, dated 17th February, 1849, with a change in the *condition* of the instrument to conform to the facts. The packages, boxes, cases, &c., containing the goods, must be secured and sealed in the mode prescribed in the 21st section of the before mentioned circular instructions.

On the arrival of the goods at Lavaca, they must be landed under the permission and inspection of the Surveyor of the Customs at said port, who will duly examine the same, to see that the cords and seals are perfect; and if found correct, will give a permit in writing for the transportation of the goods to San Antonio, and thence by the prescribed route, to their destination in Mexico. The surveyor will be required to keep a proper record in his office, describing the goods, by whom owned, the name of the vessel, with date of arrival. Further inspection of the goods will be made by the Inspector of the customs at San Antonio, and likewise by the inspectors stationed on the route by which the goods may be conveyed to Mexico. These officers will, as required by the act, respectively make "report semi-annually to the Secretary of the Treasury of all the trade that passes under inspection, stating the number of packages, description of goods, their value, and the names of the exporters."

Upon production of due proof of landing of the goods in Mexico, as required by law, the exportation bonds may be canceled.

W. L. HODGE, Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

THE POSTAGE LAW OF 1852, AND POSTAL REGULATIONS.

AN ACT TO AMEND THE ACT ENTITLED "AN ACT TO REDUCE AND MODIFY THE RATES OF POSTAGE IN THE UNITED STATES, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES," PASSED MARCH THIRD, EIGHTEEN-HUNDRED AND FIFTY-ONE.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the thirtieth day of September, eighteen hundred and fifty-two, the postage upon all printed matter passing through the mail of the United States, instead of the rates now charged, shall be as follows, to wit: Each newspaper, periodical, unsealed circular, or other article of printed matter, not exceeding three ounces in weight, shall be sent to any part of the United States for one cent; and for every additional ounce, or fraction of an ounce, one cent additional shall be charged; and when the postage upon any newspaper or periodical is paid yearly or quarterly in advance, at the office where the said periodical or newspaper is delivered, or is paid yearly or quarterly in advance at the office where the same is mailed, and evidence of such payment is furnished to the office of delivery in such manner as the Post-office department shall by general regulations prescribe, one half of said rate only shall be charged. Newspapers and periodicals not weighing over one ounce-and-a-half, when circulated in the State where published, shall be charged one-half of the rates before mentioned: Provided, that small newspapers and periodicals, published monthly or oftener, and pamphlets not containing more than sixteen octavo pages each, when sent in single packages weighing at least eight ounces, to one address, and prepaid by affixing postage stamps thereto, shall be charged one half of a cent for each ounce, or fraction of an ounce, notwithstanding the postage calculated on each separate article of such package would exceed that amount. The postage on all transient matter shall be prepaid by stamps or otherwise, or shall be charged double the rates first above mentioned.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That books bound or unbound, not weighing over four pounds shall be deemed mailable matter, and shall be chargeable with postage at one cent an ounce for all distances under three thousand miles, and two cents for all distances over three thousand miles, to which 50 per cent shall be added in all cases

where the same may be sent without being prepaid, and all printed matter chargeable by weight shall be weighed when dry. The publishers of newspapers and periodicals may send to each other from their respective offices of publication, free of postage, one copy of each publication; and may also send to each actual subscriber, inclosed in their publications, bills and receipts for the same, free of postage. The publishers of weekly newspapers may send to each actual subscriber within the county where their papers are printed and published, one copy thereof free of postage.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That no newspaper, periodical, magazine, or other printed paper or matter, shall be entitled to be sent at the rates of postage in this act specified, unless the following conditions be observed: *First.* It shall be sent without cover or wrapper; or in a cover or wrapper open at the ends or sides, so that the character of the matter contained therein may be determined without removing such wrapper. *Second.* There shall be no word or communication printed upon the same after its publication, or upon the cover or wrapper thereof, except the name and address of the person to whom it is to be sent. *Third.* There shall be no paper or other thing inclosed in or with such printed paper; and if these conditions are not complied with, such printed matter shall be subject to letter postage; and all matters sent by mail from one part of the United States to another, the postage of which is not fixed by the provisions of this act, shall, unless the same be entitled to be sent free of postage, be charged with letter postage.

SEC. 4. And be it further enacted, That if the publisher of any periodical, after being three months previously notified that his publication is not taken out of the office to which it is sent for delivery, continue to forward such publication in the mail, the postmaster to whose office such publication is sent may dispose of the same for the postage, unless the publisher shall pay it; and whenever any printed matter of any description, received during one quarter of the fiscal year, shall have remained in the office without being called for during the whole of any succeeding quarter, the postmaster at such office shall sell the same, and credit the proceeds of such sale in his quarterly accounts, under such regulations and after such notice as the Post-office Department shall prescribe.

SEC. 5. And be it further enacted, That so much of the second section of the act entitled, "An act to modify and reduce the rates of postage in the United States, and for other purposes," approved March third, eighteen hundred and fifty-one, as relates to the postage or free circulation or transmission of newspapers, periodicals and other printed matter, and all other provisions of law inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 6. And be it further enacted, That when a list of uncalled-for letters shall be published in any newspaper printed in any foreign language, said list shall be published in such newspaper having the largest circulation within the range of delivery of said office. Approved August 30th, 1852.

The subjoined postage tables have been prepared at the Post-office Department, and are believed to be correct.

POSTAL REGULATIONS.

QUARTERLY RATES OF POSTAGE WHEN PAID IN ADVANCE, ON NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS SENT FROM THE OFFICE OF PUBLICATION TO ACTUAL SUBSCRIBERS, FROM AND AFTER THE 30TH OF SEPTEMBER, 1852.

	Daily.	Six times a week.	Tri-weekly.	Semi-weekly.	Weekly.	Semi-monthly.	Monthly.
	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Weekly newspapers (one copy only) sent to actual subscribers in the county where printed and published.....	.....	.....	.....	...	free	...	...
Newspapers and periodicals, not exceeding 1½ oz. in weight, when circulated in the State where published.....	22½	19½	9½	6½	3½	1½	½
Newspapers and periodicals of the weight of 3 oz. and under, sent to any part of the United States.....	45½	39	19½	13	6½	3	1½
Over 3 and not over 4 ounces.....	91	78	39	26	13	6	3
Over 4 and not over 5 ounces.....	1 36½	1 17	58½	39	19½	9	4½
Over 5 and not over 6 ounces.....	1 82	1 56	78	52	26	12	6
Over 6 and not over 7 ounces.....	2 27½	1 95	97½	65	32½	15	7½
Over 7 and not over 8 ounces.....	2 73	2 34	1 17	78	39	18	9

DIRECTIONS.

1st. When the weight of any publication exceeds eight ounces, the same progressive rate of postage laid down in the above table, must be charged.

2d. Publishers of newspapers and periodicals may send to each other from their respective offices of publication, free of postage, one copy of each publication; and may also send to each actual subscriber, inclosed in their publications, bills and receipts for the same, free of postage.

3d. Postmasters are not entitled to receive newspapers free of postage, under their franking privilege.

4th. If the publisher of any newspaper or periodical, after being three months previously notified that his publication is not taken out of the office to which it is sent for delivery, continues to forward such publication in the mail, the postmaster to whose office such publication is sent will dispose of the same for the postage, unless the publisher shall pay it; and whenever any printed matter of any description, received during one quarter of the fiscal year, shall have remained in the office without being called for during the whole of any succeeding quarter, the postmaster of such office will sell the same and credit the proceeds of such sale in his quarterly accounts in the usual manner.

5th. Quarterly payments in advance may be made either at the mailing office or the office of delivery. When made at the mailing office, satisfactory evidence of such payment must be exhibited to the postmaster at the office of delivery.

THE ANCHORAGE DUES OF BRAZIL REDUCED.

We are indebted to R. S. Chew, Esq., of the Consular Bureau, at Washington, for the subjoined decree of the Brazilian Government, reducing the anchorage dues of vessels at the ports of that Empire:—

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES, RIO DE JANEIRO, July 7, 1852.

SIR:—I have the honor to inclose herewith a printed copy of a decree of His Majesty, the Emperor, reducing the anchorage dues on vessels from foreign ports, and also a translation of the same. The reduction is very large, the rate now fixed being one-third of the sum heretofore exacted.

The former sum, 900 reis per ton, is about 48 cents of American money, and the 300 reis about 16 cents, at the present rate of exchange.

I have examined the other decrees referred to in article 2d, and find that the first refers to deductions upon vessels which bring colonists. The 2d and 3d have particular reference to vessels arriving and departing in ballast, and such as enter in "franquia," and to those which merely touch without doing business here, and to those which, making three voyages to the port in one year, have been exempted from any anchorage dues on the third voyage, and to those putting in in distress. The former regulations, as I understand, in reference to all such vessels, remain unaltered.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

(Signed) EDWARD KENT.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, Secretary of State of the United States.

[TRANSLATION.]

DECREE NO. 928, OF MARCH 5, 1852.—REDUCES THE ANCHORAGE DUES.

In view of the regulation of article 28th, of the law No. 369, of the 18th of September, 1845, I deem it expedient to decree:—

ART. 1. From the 1st July, 1852, forward, the anchorage dues on vessels which may navigate between foreign ports and those of the Empire, shall be reduced to three hundred reis per ton; and the impost of the same denomination, which is now paid by coasting vessels, abolished.

ART. 2. The regulations of the 26th April, 20th July, and 15th November, 1844, are to be continued in force in the part not altered by this decree.

Joaquim José Rodrigues Torres, of my Council, Senator of the Empire, Minister and Secretary of State of the Financial Department, President of the Tribunal of the National Treasury, so understanding it, will order its execution.

Palace of Rio de Janeiro, on the 5th of March, 1852, thirty-first of the independence and of the Empire.

With the signature of His Majesty, the Emperor.

(Signed) JOAQUIM JOSE RODRIGUES TORRES.

NEW COMMERCIAL LAW OF THE EMPEROR OF HAYTI.

The following is a translation of a new commercial law, approved by the Senate June 29, 1852, published at Port au Prince, July 2, 1852, and promulgated by the Emperor:—

ADDITIONAL LAWS TO THE LAWS OF 28D JULY, 1838, AND 24TH DECEMBER, 1850, ON THE CUSTOMS.

Faustin I., by the grace of God and the constitutional law of the State, Emperor of Hayti, to all present and to come, greeting—

By and with the advice of the Council of Ministers and the Legislative Body.

Considering that the law of the 24th December, 1850, voted with the view of protecting the fiscal revenues of the custom-houses, has not entirely attained the objects proposed, and that it becomes necessary to insure by new dispositions the exact collection of the revenues, by protecting them against all attempts at fraud:

Have proposed the following law:—

ART. 1. On the entry at the custom-house of a vessel coming from foreign ports, the consignee will present to the director, in addition to the manifest, the original invoice or invoices of all the merchandise forming the cargo of the said vessel, which shall, like the manifest of the said cargo, be allotted with the certificate of the commercial agent of the empire, should there be one at the port of clearance of the vessel.

ART. 2. The invoice should show the marks, number, and description of the packages; as regards dry goods, the number of pieces or cuts, their measure and dimensions; for such goods as are bought by weight, the gross and net weight; and for all other goods, the precise designation of the quality and number of the articles contained in the packages, the actual price of which should be noted, and the certificate should make mention of the shipper's declaration, before the commercial agent, of the truth of the invoice.

ART. 3. A copy of the invoice shall at the same time be furnished to the agent; this copy need not contain the prices of each separate article, but only the total amount of the original invoice, and it should agree with it in every particular as regards the description of the marks, number of the packages, their contents, measure, width, quantity, weight, and precise designation of the goods.

ART. 4. All goods coming from a foreign port, where the government maintains an agent, which shall not be accompanied by an invoice, certified by the said agent, which shall not be admitted to verification at the custom-house, at least until a demand shall have been made to the Minister of Commerce by the consignee of the vessel, or by the claimant of the goods. According to the instructions given by the Minister of Commerce, the Intendant of Finances shall order the verification, which shall take place in the presence of a commission, which shall be named for the purpose.

ART. 5. The non-production of the certificate of the commercial agent at the port of clearance shall carry with it a fine of five times the amount of the invoice not accompanied by the said certificate; and this fine shall be paid into the public treasury at the same time with the duties chargeable on the cargo.

ART. 6. All declarations recognized as false in consequence of non-conformity between the invoice, duly certified, and the contents of the packages, shall carry with it the confiscation of the goods, and a penalty equal to double the amount of the duties.

ART. 7. All goods found over and above the quantities charged in the invoice, duly certified, and not exceeding 2 per cent on the amount of the said invoice, shall be subjected to double duties as regards the excess only.

ART. 8. All goods found less in quantities than what is actually charged in the duly certified invoice shall be subjected to double duties.

ART. 9. Shall be seized and sold for the benefit of the State, whether charged or not on the bills of lading, all goods without invoice and not declared on the manifest, which shall be found on the vessel either at the moment of landing, or in being landed out of custom-house hours. Besides the seizure, the proprietors of the goods and the delinquents shall each be subjected to a fine equal to double the duties. The vessel on board of which the goods shall have been found, or the crime committed, shall pay a fine of one thousand dollars, if the value of the duties on the seized goods does not exceed 50 Spanish dollars; and if the value of these duties exceeds 50 Spanish dollars, the vessel shall be confiscated and sold for the benefit of the State.

ART. 10. All contraventions to the dispositions of the laws on the customs, which

might carry with them the confiscation of vessels or goods, and condemnation to fines and all other penalties, shall be made known by the Intendant of Finances, or denounced by any other person, to the Imperial Procureur, and shall be judged immediately by the tribunals of peace, or Imperial Courts competent to take cognizance of them.

The sale of articles seized shall take place by public cries, at the bar of the tribunal which shall have had charge of the case, and in the presence of the Imperial Procureur, or his substitute.

ART. 11. Whosoever shall give notice of the fraud, or shall facilitate the seizure of goods in contraband, shall be entitled to one-half of the net proceeds of the articles seized.

ART. 12. All custom-house regulations relating to masters of vessels coming from foreign parts, shall be copied out into small books in different languages, and one of these books shall, on the arrival of the pilot on board of each vessel, be handed by him to the captain, who shall be required, on presenting himself at the Bureau of the Port, to sign an acknowledgment of the receipt of the said book.

ART. 13. Every consul or commercial agent of the empire, established in a foreign port, shall receive the following charges for certifying invoices and manifests, viz.:—

For every invoice from 1 to 100 Spanish dollars	$0 50
For every invoice from 101 to 500 Spanish dollars	1 00
For every invoice from 501 to 1,000 Spanish dollars	1 50
For every invoice from 1,001 to 5,000 Spanish dollars	2 00
For every invoice from 5,000 to 10,000 Spanish dollars	4 00
For every invoice from 10,001 to 20,000 Spanish dollars	6 00
For every invoice from 20,001 and upward	10 00
For every manifest	2 00

ART. 14. The present law shall be put into execution as follows:—In three months for vessels coming from ports on the American continent and the Islands of the Archipelago, and in four months for vessels coming from ports in Europe, both to start from the day of its promulgation.

ART. 15. The present law abrogates all dispositions contrary to it. It shall be printed and published, and the Ministers are charged each in that which concerns him with its execution.

Done at the Chamber of Representatives, at Port au Prince, June 21, 1852, in the forty-ninth year of the independence, and third of the reign of his Imperial Majesty.

CONCERNING THE STOWAGE OF MIXED CARGOES.

The subjoined instructions to commanders and mates for the stowage of mixed cargoes, were prepared by Henry Chapman & Co., agents for Lloyd's, Liverpool, and approved and recommended by the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's:—

1. Owners, commanders, and mates of ships are considered in law in the same situation as common carriers: it is, therefore, necessary that all due precaution be taken to receive and stow cargoes in good order, and deliver the same in like good order. The law holds the ship owner liable for the safe custody of the goods when properly and legally received on board in good order, and for the "delivery to parties producing the bill of lading. The captain's blank bill of lading should be receipted by the warehouse keeper or person authorized to receive the contents. Goods are not unfrequently sent alongside in a damaged state, and letters of indemnity given to the captain by the shippers for signing in good order and condition; this is nothing more nor less than conniving at fraud; fine goods are often damaged in the ship's hold, by lumpers, if permitted to use cotton hooks in handling bales. All goods must be received on board according to the custom of the port where the cargo is to be taken in, and the same custom will regulate the commencement of the responsibility of the masters and owners.

2. Hemp, flax, wool, and cotton should be dunnaged nine inches on the floors, and to the *upper part* of the *bilge*, the wing bales of the second tier kept six inches off the side at the lower corner, and two-and-a-half inches at the sides. Sand or damp gravel ballast to be covered with boards. Pumps to be frequently sounded and attended to. Sharp bottomed ships one-third less dunnage in floor and bilges. Avoid horn shavings as dunnage from Calcutta.

3. All corn, wheat, rice, peas, beans, &c., when in bulk, to be stowed on a good high

platform, or dunnage wood, of not less than ten inches, and in the bilges 14 inches dunnage; the pumps and masts cased, to have strong bulk-heads, good shifting boards, with feeders and ventilators, and to have no admixture of other goods. Flat-floored, wall sided ships should be fitted with bilge pumps. On no consideration must the staunchions under the beams be removed.

4. Oil, wine, spirits, beer, molasses, tar, &c., to be stowed bung up; to have good *cross beds* at the quarters, (*and not to trust to hanging beds,*) to be well chocked with wood, and allowed to stow three hights of pipes or butts, four hights of puncheons, and six hights of hogsheads or half puncheons. All moist goods and liquids, such as salted hides, bales of bacon, butter, lard, grease, castor oil, &c., should not be stowed too near dry goods, whose nature is to absorb moisture. Shipowners have often to pay heavy damage for leakage in casks of molasses, arising from stowing too many hights without an intervening platform or 'twixt decks. From Bengal goods also are frequently damaged by castor oil.

5. Tea and flour, in barrels; flax, clover, and linseed, or rice, in tierces; coffee and cocoa, in bags, should always have nine inches at least of good dunnage in the bottom, and fourteen to the upper part of the bilge, with two-and-a-half inches at the sides; allowed to stow six hights of tierces, and eight hights of barrels. All ships above six hundred tons should have 'twixt decks or platforms laid for these cargoes, to ease the pressure—caulked 'twixt decks should have scuppers in the sides, and two-and-a-half inches of dunnage laid athwart ship, and not fore-and-aft ways, when in bags or sacks; and when in boxes or casks not less than one inch. Rice from Calcutta is not unfrequently damaged by indigo, for want of care in stowing.

6. Entire cargoes of sugar, saltpeter, and guano, in bags, must have the dunnage carefully attended to, as laid down for other goods. Timber ships are better without 'twixt decks, if loading all timber or deals. Brown sugar is to be kept separate from white sugar, and both kept from direct contact with saltpeter.

7. Pot and pearl ashes, tobacco, bark, indigo, madders, gum, &c., whether in casks, cases, or bales, to be dunnaged in the bottom, and to the upper part of the bilges, at least nine inches, and two-and-a-half inches at the sides.

8. Miscellaneous goods, such as boxes of cheese, kegs and tubs of lard, or other small or slight made packages, not intended for broken stowage, should be stowed by themselves, and dunnaged as other goods.

9. Barrels of provisions and tallow casks allowed to stow six hights. All metals should be stowed under, and separated from goods liable to be damaged by contact.

10. All manufactured goods, also dry hides, bales of silk, or other valuable articles, should have two-and-a-half inches of dunnage against the side, to preserve a water course. Bundles of sheet iron, rods, pigs of copper or iron, or any rough hard substance, should not be allowed to come in contact with bales or bags, or any soft packages liable to be chafed. When mats can be procured they should be used at the sides for silk, tea, &c.

11. Tar, turpentine, rosin, &c., to have the flat beds of wood, under the quarters, of an inch thick, and allowed to stow six hights.

12. Very frequent and serious loss falls on merchants on the upper part of cargoes, particularly in vessels that bring wheat, corn, tobacco, oil cake, &c., arising from vapor damage, imbibed by wheat, flour, and other goods stowed in the same vessel with turpentine, or other strong-scented articles; the shippers are to blame for such negligence, for not making due inquiry before shipping.

13. Ships laden with full cargoes of coal, bound round Cape Horn or Cape of Good Hope, to be provided with approved ventilators as a preventive against ignition.

14. No vessel bound on any over-sea voyage should, on any account, be loaded beyond that point of immersion which will present a clear side out of water when upright, of three inches to every foot depth of hold, measured amidships, from the hight of the deck at the side to the water.

IMPORTANT DECISION ON THE REVENUE LAW.

The Supreme Court, just previous to its adjournment, decided that the 58th and 59th sections of the Act of the 2d March, 1799, as regards rates of tare and allowance for leakage, are not in force under the tariff of 1843. Under this decision, in future, no allowances beyond actual tare can be made in estimating the quantity subject to duty of any weighable article, and the allowance of 2 per cent on liquids for perspective leakage will allowed, but any leakage during the voyage of importation will still

be subject to deduction from the dutiable value. The same decision also declares that the construction put by the Treasury Department upon the revenue laws, as regards the imposition of duty, is binding until reversed by judicial proceedings, and that no claim can be made for a return of duties under such treasury construction, unless the parties, at the time of entry made a protest specially stating the ground of objection.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHTS CARRIED BY SEA-GOING VESSELS.

BRITISH ADMIRALITY NOTICE, RESPECTING LIGHTS TO BE CARRIED BY SEA-GOING VESSELS, TO PREVENT COLLISIONS.

All British sea-going steam vessels, (whether propelled by paddles or screws,) shall, within all seas, gulfs, channels, straits, bays, creeks, roads, roadsteads, harbors, havens, ports and rivers, and under all circumstances, between sunset and sunrise, exhibit lights of such description, and in such manner as is hereinafter mentioned, viz:—

When under steam—A bright white light at the foremost head; a green light on the starboard side; a red light on the port side.

1. The mast-head light is to be visible at a distance of at least five miles in a dark night with a clear atmosphere, and the lantern is to be so constructed as to show a uniform and unbroken light over an arc of the horizon of twenty points of the compass, being ten points on each side of the ship, viz: from right ahead to two points abaft the beam on either side.

2. The green light on the starboard side is to be visible at a distance of at least two miles in a dark night with a clear atmosphere, and the lantern is to be constructed so as to show a uniform and unbroken light over an arc of the horizon of ten points of the compass, viz: from right ahead to two points abaft the beam on the starboard side.

3. The red light on the port side is likewise to be fitted so as to throw its light the same distance on that side.

4. The side lights are moreover to be fitted with screens on the inboard side, of at least three feet long, to prevent the light from being seen across the bow.

When at anchor—a common bright light.

SAILING VESSELS.

We hereby require that all sailing vessels, when under sail, or being towed, approaching or being approached by any other vessel, shall be bound to show, between sunset and sunrise, a bright light in such a position as can be best seen by such vessel or vessels, and in sufficient time to avoid a collision.

All sailing vessels at anchor in roadsteads of fairways, shall also be bound to exhibit, between sunset and sunrise, a constant bright light at the mast-head, except within harbors or other places where regulations for other lights for ships are legally established.

The lantern to be used when at anchor, both by steam vessels and by sailing vessels, is to be so constructed as to show a good clear light all round the horizon.

We hereby revoke all regulations heretofore made by us, relating to steam-vessels exhibiting or carrying lights; and we require that the preceding regulations be strictly carried into effect on and after the 1st of August, 1852.

Given under our hands the first day of May, 1852.

HYDE PARKER.
P. HORNBY.
By command of their Lordships, W. A. B. HAMILTON.

ALTERATION IN THE BEACONS AT THE MOUTHS OF THE TEXEL.

THE HAGUE, 19th July, 1852.

The Minister of Marine informs all interested thereby, that the following alteration and modification of the Beacons at the mouths of the Texel is to take place:—

On the 1st of August, 1852, the present outside white, outside black, and second black buoy, will be removed and in lieu thereof there will be laid:—

One outside white buoy against the north side of the bank, in a depth of 60 palms at the mark, Schoute Cape in the light-house of Kykduin, and one outside black buoy (in the shape of an anchor buoy,) against the North Grounds in 56 palms depth, at the marks.

The Steeple of Hoorn on Texel in the third white sand hill north of the Young Petersdown, Schoute Cape at the Battery, north of Kykduin and the capes at the Sand Dyke, S. S. E. ½ E. (unadjusted compass.)

By this alteration of the buoys, the present outside buoys at this entrance will be done away with, and the entrance at the West Mouth, indicated by the above-mentioned outside buoys, will come to be very nearly at the place now included between the second and third black buoys.

Further, the white buoys placed along the shore in the Schulpengat (which on entering are kept on the starboard side,) are to be immediately increased by another similar buoy between the second buoy of the so called French Shoal, and the third white buoy inside at the marks.

The small cape at the foot of Kykduin, and the fifth black buoy, W. N. W. (unadjusted compass,) in 68 palms depth.

And, further, in Texel Roads, east of the Laam, another black buoy is to be placed in 40 palms depth, at the marks.

The mill at the Helder, just clear of the east side of the church steeple of Helder, and the Jewish and Catholic Churches in a line one behind the other.

CORAL BANK IN THE CHANNEL OFF THE ROADS OF BATAVIA.

THE HAGUE, June, 22, 1852.

The Minister of Marine hereby informs such as are interested thereby, that according to information received from the Committee for the improvement of the Indian Sea Charts, dated 17th April last, the shoal in the large channel to the Roads of Batavia, north of the Island of Middleburg, on which, on the 1st July, 1850, the ship Johanna Maria Christina had struck, and concerning which a provisional announcement, dated, 14th October, 1850, was given in the Netherland Staats Courant, has since then been further examined and determined by Lieutenant of the 1st class, P. Van Woelderen, commanding His Majesty's steamship Borneo, as follows:—

Soundings—The south point of Po Dapper, N. 57° E.; the north point of Haarlem, S. 60° E.; the east point of Amsterdam, S. 83° E.; the west point of do. S. 18° E.; the east point of Middleburg S. 9° E.; the west point of do. S 6° W.; the south point of Small Kombuis N. 89° W.

Besides which, from the bank, the following bearings apply:—

The north point of Small Kombuis in a line with the south point of Great Kombuis; the east point of Amsterdam in a line with the middle of Purmerend.

According to the above mentioned information, the shoal consists of a very narrow coral bank, stretching about two ship's lengths east and west, with 3¼ to 5 fathoms (7 to 9, 4 Netherland Ells,) water, and is known to the fishermen by the name of Karang Berengang. (Signed,)

J. ENSLIE.

VESSELS BOUND OR TOUCHING AT MONTEVIDEO.

OFFICIAL NOTICE FOR VESSELS BOUND TO OR TOUCHING AT MONTEVIDEO.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE ORIENTAL REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY.

The undersigned consul-general of said republic, begs to notify all those trading to Montevideo, that he has received officially from his government dated Montevideo, 5th May, 1852, notice that they will enforce rigidly the regulations of the port, and vessels sailing for that republic must have the following papers, certified by the consul, or be liable to a fine of $1,200: Bill of health, two copies of manifests, crew list.

JOHN LEWIS DARBY, Consul-General.

CURRENTS OF THE AMAZON AND MISSOURI.

Lieutenant MAURY, of the National Observatory at Washington, says:—

"If drift wood from the Andes, in the interior of South America, be set afloat upon the head waters of the Amazon, and if another log be felled from the Rocky Mountains, in the interior of North America, and cast upon the head waters of the Missouri, these two pieces of drift, taken to represent the currents of their rivers, and of the seas into which they empty, will, each obeying the force of the winds and set of the currents, be driven out upon the broad ocean through the Florida Pass."

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

RATES OF TOLL ON THE NEW YORK CANALS.

ESTABLISHED BY THE CANAL BOARD ON PERSONS AND PROPERTY TRANSPORTED ON THE NEW YORK STATE CANALS, WHICH TOOK EFFECT ON THE OPENING OF NAVIGATION IN 1852.

	Cents.	Mills.	Fractions.
PROVISIONS, ETC.			
On salted beef, butter, tallow, beer, cider, and vinegar, per 1,000 lbs.	0	3	0
On salted pork, bacon, lard, lard oil, grease and cheese, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5
On salted fish and fish in brine, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On bran and ship-stuff, and oil cake or oil meal, in bulk, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
IRON, MINERALS, ORES, ETC.			
On salt, manufactured in this State, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On foreign salt, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
On gypsum, the product of this State, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On foreign gypsum, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On bloom, scrap and pig iron, broken castings, gas pipes and water pipes, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On brick, sand, lime, clay, earth, manure, iron ore, pig and smelted copper, and stone for the manufacture of lime, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On leached ashes and bones for manure, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	0	5
On pot and pearl ashes, window glass, barilla and bleaching powders, kelp, soda ash, copperas, and manganese, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On mineral coal and charcoal, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	0	5
On stoves, iron car wheels and car axles, bed plates for steam-engines, plow castings, and all other iron castings, except machines and the parts thereof, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On bar and pig lead, going towards tide-water, and copper ore, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	0	5
On stove pipe and furniture for stoves, not cast iron, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	6	0
FURS, PELTRY, SKINS, ETC.			
On furs and the skins of animals producing furs, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	1	0	0
On deer, buffalo and moose skins, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
On sheep skins, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On green hides of domestic animals of the United States, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On imported raw hides of domestic and other animals, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
FURNITURE, ETC.			
On household furniture, accompanied by and actually belonging to families emigrating, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On carts, wagons, sleighs, plows, and mechanics' tools necessary for the owner's individual use, when accompanied by the owner, emigrating for the purpose of settlement, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
STONE, SLATE, ETC.			
On tile for roofing and stoneware, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On slate, all stone wrought or partly wrought, fire proof cement, and drain tile, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On unwrought stone, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5

LUMBER, WOOD, ETC.

	Cents.	Mills.	Fractions.
On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats	0	4	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per 100 cubic feet per mile	1	0	0
On the same, if cleared after the 1st of June and arriving before the 15th of August, inclusive, per 100 cubic feet per mile	0	7	0
On lumber carried in boats, when weighed, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, namely:—			
1. On white pine, white wood, bass wood, and cedar	0	1	5
2. On oak, hickory, beech, sycamore, and black walnut	0	1	0
3. On spruce, maple, ash, and elm	0	1	2
4. On cherry	0	1	4
5. On hemlock	0	0	6
6. On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, all kinds of red cedar, cedar posts, estimating that a cord, after deducting for opening, will contain one thousand feet, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated in rates number 32 and 41,) per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	4	0
7. On hemlock, per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	2	5
8. On sub. 6 and 7, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile	2	0	0
On mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile	1	5	0
On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop poles, handspikes, rowing oars, broom handles, spokes, hubs, tree-nails, fellies, boat-knees, plane stocks, pickets for fences, and stuff manufactured or partly manufactured for chairs or bedsteads, hop poles, brush handles, brush backs, looking-glass backs, gun stocks, plow beams, and plow handles, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On staves and heading, empty barrels and casks, and ship knees, transported in boats, per 1,000 lbs per mile	0	1	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
On shingles, carried in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	0	4	0
On split posts, (not exceeding 10 feet in length,) and rails for fences, (not exceeding 14 feet in length,) per M. per mile, carried in boats	2	0	0
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	8	0	0
On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan bark, per cord per mile	0	5	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per cord per mile	2	0	0
On sawed stuff for window blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window sashes and blinds, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.

On domestic distilled spirits, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On wood, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On cotton, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs and bones, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On horses, (except those used exclusively for towing boats or floats,) per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On horses used exclusively for towing boats or other floats, exempt from toll.			
On rags and junk, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On manilla, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On hemp and tobacco, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0

	Cents.	Mills.	Fractions.
On tobacco, going from tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On pressed broom corn, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On pressed hay, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On corn, corn meal, and oats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On wheat, flour, barley, rye, peas, and beans, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On flour starting and going from tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile.	0	1	0
On potatoes, apples, onions, turnips, all other esculent roots, and ice, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On all other agricultural productions of the United States, not particularly specified, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
MERCHANDISE.			
On bartyes and veneering, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	8	0
On sugar, molasses, coffee, iron in bars, bundles and sheets, steel, nail rods, boiler iron, nails and spikes, horse-shoes, crockery and glass-ware, tin, rosin, tar, pith, turpentine, oil, anchors, chain cables, oakum, mineral water, oysters and clams, dye woods, and all other merchandise not enumerated, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
On railroad iron and railroad chair, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5
On thrashing, mowing and reaping machines, fanning mills, plows, harrows, and drill barrows, used for agricultural purposes, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED, ETC.			
On all articles not enumerated or excepted, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0
BOATS AND PASSENGERS.			
On boats used chiefly for the transportation of persons navigating the canals, per mile	4	0	0
On the same if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile	3	0	0
On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property, per mile	2	0	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile	2	3	0
On all persons over ten years of age, per mile	0	0	5

PROGRESS OF PLANK-ROADS IN NEW YORK AND CANADA.

Among the many improvements in the means of communication which have been prosecuted in the last few years, plank roads are assuming a very important rank. A little work by Mr. Kingsford, of the Hudson River Railroad, is of great interest, and should be well circulated throughout the country. It appears that the first plank-road in Canada was laid down in 1836, and in New York in 1837, but it is only within the last four years that they have been much prosecuted. There now exist as follows:—

PLANK-ROADS IN OPERATION.

	No. of roads.	Miles.	Average cost per mile.	Total.
Canada	..	442	$1,750	$773,500
New York	19	2,106	1,833	3,860,298

Very nearly four million of dollars have been expended in New York upon these roads, and the resulting advantages are immense. The roads have all been subscribed for by individuals, and all pay handsome dividends. For instance, the Troy and Lansingburg road pays 10 per cent semi-annually; the Utica and Burlington 20 per cent, and we believe none in operation pay less than 10 per cent, and none of the stocks can be bought in the market.

The importance of plank-roads in farming regions becomes self-evident, when it is stated that on the Salina road a two-horse team drew *six tons* of iron twelve miles, without unusual strain. Four-and-a-half tons is an ordinary load, and a team will travel with it eight hours per day, four miles an hour, day after day. A farmer, in a heavy country, stated that the tolls paid saved themselves in the *labor of cleaning horses*. In all localities where these roads are in operation, land rises greatly in

value. On the Salina road farm land rose from $9 to $15 per acre; on the Syracuse road the increase was $10 per acre. It will be observed that an amount of property equal to $4,000,000, bearing a high rate of interest, has been created, and that property has added in addition several millions to the value of the land through which it runs, and that all this property is mere saving from the old cost of transportation. As the existence and operation of these roads is but little known out of their localities, we append the statistics:—

Name.	Opened.	Length, miles.	Cost per mile.
Great Western Albany	1849	11	$2,555
Fonda and Carogo	1849	18½	1,850
Fultonville and Johnstown	1849	5	5,000
Rome and Utica	1848	15	1,713
Northern Road, Utica	1848	22	1,800
Utica and Burlington	1849	5½	2,100
Rome and Oswego	1847	60	1,500
Rome and Western	1849	11	1,500
Rome and Taberg	1849	9	1,300
Rome and Madison	1849	22	1,250
Salina and Central	1847	16	1,500
Syracuse and Manlius	1849	8	1,200
Syracuse and Bridgeport	1849	12	1,400
Syracuse and Oswego	1849	32	1,300
Salina and Liverpool	1849	11	1,400
Syracuse and Tully	1848	25	1,100
Split Rock Road	....	..	1,600
Hannibal and Oswego	1848	11	2,000
" " "	1849	5	1,300

Every section of the country should be lined with these roads as tributaries to the railroads. The progress at the west is very great already.

APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE UNITED STATES MAIL BY OCEAN STEAMERS.

AN ACT MAKING APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE TRANSPORTATION OF THE UNITED STATES MAIL BY STEAMERS AND OTHERWISE, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING THE THIRTIETH OF JUNE, ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY-THREE.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following sums be and the same are hereby appropriated, to be paid out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the year ending the thirtieth of June, eighteen hundred and fifty-three:—

For transportation of the mails from New York to Liverpool and back, eight hundred and fifty-eight thousand dollars.

For transportation of the mails from New York to New Orleans, Charleston, Savannah, Havana, and Chagres, and back, two hundred and ninety thousand dollars.

For transportation of the mails from Panama to California and Oregon, and back, three hundred and forty-eight thousand two hundred and fifty dollars.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That the following sums be and the same are hereby appropriated for the service of the post-office department, for the year ending the thirtieth of June, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three, out of any moneys in the treasury arising from the revenues of said department, in conformity to the act of the second of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six:—

For transportation of the mails in two steamships, from New York by Southampton to Bremen and back, at one hundred thousand dollars for each ship; and in two steamships from New York, by Cowes, to Havre and back, at seventy-five thousand dollars for each ship, under the contract with the Ocean Steam Navigation Company, of New York, in addition to an unexpended balance of former appropriations, two hundred and ninety-four thousand dollars.

For transportation of the mails between Charleston and Havana, under the contract with M. C. Mordecai, fifty thousand dollars.

For transportation of the mails across the Isthmus of Panama, one hundred thousand dollars.

Approved August 30, 1852.

FATALITY OF INLAND ROUTES.

Investigations made by a committee of Congress show the following losses of property and life on the rivers and lakes of the United States in each of the last four years, not including the present:—

Years.	Amount of property destroyed.	No. of lives lost.
1848	$420,512	55
1849	368,171	34
1850	558,826	395
1851	730,537	79
Total four years	$2,078,046	563

The number of lives lost in 1850 was mainly occasioned by the explosion of boilers on board two steamboats, and the burning of a third crowded with emigrant passengers.

The present year already registers a greater number of victims than even 1850. Without looking further than the steamers Atlantic, Henry Clay, and St. James, we find a total of at least *four hundred.*

STEAMBOAT PROPELLERS.

There have been brought to light, recently, two new inventions: the one adapted to give increased speed to screw, the other to paddle navigation. Mr. G. Bovill's screw propeller, described in the *Mining Journal*, is an entirely novel affair. Its central portion is fitted up with a hollow sphere, occupying one-third of the entire diameter of the propeller, and the blades are made narrower at the outer extremity than at the base. The blades are also made to revolve, so as to admit of the pitch being altered to meet the various circumstances of speed and power. From a table of the comparative result of trials on three different boats, it appeared that important advantages have been obtained from the new propeller.

The paddle invention is that of a Liverpool shipwright named Hampson, and was tried a few days ago in the Brunswick dock. A piece of wood, perhaps about a foot square, and connected to a movable framework, so as to be capable of being moved to and fro, was fixed to the stern of the boat; the paddle, so to speak, being covered by the water, and assuming a slightly diagonal position. By moving two handles rapidly with his hands in the direction of his body from the stern, the Mr. H. brought the paddle in rapid motion, the action resembling that of the fin of a fish, the result being to propel the boat with great speed through the water. Mr. Hampson contends, that by this simple appliance alone he can propel row-boats at much more than their ordinary speed, and with infinitely less manual labor; but his grand object is to apply it to sea-going vessels by means of steam and machinery.

EXPULSION FROM CARS.

In the Boston Court of Common Pleas, the jury, in the case of Simeon Gilbert *vs.* the Boston and Maine Railroad Corporation, gave a verdict for plaintiff with nominal damages of one dollar. Gilbert, the plaintiff, was expelled from the train in consequence of having refused to pay extra fare in accordance with the rules of the road, he not having procured a ticket. The case has once before been tried, the jury then not being able to agree.

MAIL FROM NEW ORLEANS TO VERA CRUZ.

The following "act to provide for a tri-monthly mail from New Orleans to Vera Cruz, via Tampico, and back, in steamers," was passed at the last session of Congress, and approved by the President, August 30th, 1852:—

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the postmaster-general be and he is hereby authorized and directed to enter into a contract for a term of five years, and for a sum not exceeding one hundred thousand dollars a year, with such person or persons as may offer sufficient and satisfactory security, after due public notice, for the transpor-

tation of the mails of the United States, upon the best terms for the United States, three times a month from New Orleans, via Tampico, to Vera Cruz and back, in steam vessels of not less than eight hundred tons burden, of the best form of construction, adapted to war purposes and the navigation of the Southern waters, the same to be ready in the shortest possible time.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

NUMBER II.

The decline of this art in Rome is clearly defined by various writers; and its gradual introduction into Bohemia and Venice is plainly marked out. At this latter place the art flourished to a remarkable degree, and being marked by constant progress and improvement enabled Venice to supply the world without a rival, and with the beautiful manufacture called "Venice drinking-cups." The beauty and value of these are abundantly testified by many authors, among whom is "Halinshed," referred to in a former article. The manufacture of these and similar articles were located, as stated in the "Chronicles," at Murano, a place about one mile from the city, where the business was carried on and assumed a high position in the order of the arts. And from thence we are enabled to date its future progress, and gradual introduction into Europe, Germany, England, and the Western World.

It is not strange that the strict secrecy with which the business was conducted in these times, should have invested the art with an air of romance; and legends, probably invented for the purpose, created a maximum of wonder among the uninitiated. The government of Venice also added, by its course, to the popular notions regarding the high mystery of the art, conferring, as it did, the title of "Gentleman" (no idle title in those days) on all who became accomplished in the manufacture. Howell, in his "Familiar Letters," dated from Venice in 1621, says:—"Not without reason, it being a rare kind of knowledge and chemistry, to transmute the dull bodies of dust and sand. for they are the only ingredients, to such pellucid, dainty body, as we see crystal glasses is."

That the art had greatly improved at the hands of the Venetian artisans, cannot be doubted. The manufacture was carried to a degree far beyond any previous period; and the more so, because sustained by the governmental protection and patronage. Venice being then at the hight of her commercial glory, she herself being "Queen of the Sea," ample facilities existed for the exportation of her manufactures to every part of the known world; and for a long period she held the monopoly of supplying the cities of Europe with crystal glass in its various departments of ornament and utility.

A French writer, who published an elaborate work in twelve books upon the subject of Glass Manufactures, after it had been introduced into France, gives an interesting account of the rise and progress of the art in that country, the encouragement it received, and the high estimation in which it was held. After stating that it was introduced into France from Venice, he says:—

"The workmen who are employed in this noble art are all gentlemen, for they admit none but such. They have obtained many large privileges, the principal whereof is to work themselves, without derogating from their nobility. Those who obtained these privileges first of all were gentlemen by birth; and their privilege running, that they may exercise this art without derogating from their nobility—is a sufficient proof of it—which has been confirmed by all our kings; and in all inquiries that have been made into counterfeit nobilities, never was any one attainted who enjoyed these privileges, having always maintained their honor down to their posterities."

Baron Von Lowhen states in his Analysis of Nobility in its Origin, that "So useful were the glass makers at one period at Venice, and so considerable the revenue accruing to the republic from their manufacture, that to encourage the men engaged in it to remain in Murano, the Senate made them all Burgesses of Venice, and allowed nobles to marry their daughters, whereas, if a nobleman marries the daughter of any other tradesman, the issue is not reputed noble."

From this statement a valuable lesson can be drawn, viz.: that a strict parallel is

constantly observable between the progress of this art and the intellectual and social elevation of its possessors.

Those engaged in it now do not indeed occupy the same social position; still it is probable that in foreign lands the blood of such ancestor still run in their veins; and even in our own democratical land, with all the tendencies of its institutions, workers in glass claim a distinctive rank and character among the trades; and in the prices of labor, and the estimate of the comparative skill involved, are not controlled by those laws of labor and compensation which govern most other mechanical professions—and similarity of taste and habit is in a degree characteristic of the modern artisan in this department, as in the case of those who, for their accomplishment in the art, were ennobled in the more remote period of its progress. The same writer says:—

"It must be owned those great and continual heats which these gentlemen are exposed to from their furnaces are prejudicial to their health; for coming in at their mouths it attacks their lungs and dries them up, whence most part are pale and short-lived, by reason of the diseases of the heart and breast, which the fire causes; which makes Libarius say, they were of weak and infirm bodies, thirsty and easily drunk—this writer says is their true character; but I will say this in their favor, that this character is not general, having known several without this fault."

Such was the character and habits of noble glass makers four hundred years since; and whether their descendants retain their blood or not, the habit of drinking, believed at that time necessary as consequent upon the nature of the employment, is at the present day confined to the ignorant, dissolute, and unambitious workmen. The habit will doubtless, ere long, be done away. Still, so long as the workmen of the present day cling to their conventional rules—act as one body, the lazy controlling the efforts of the more intelligent and industrious—so long will the conduct of the dissolute few affect the moral reputation of the entire body. They must not forget the old adage that "One bad sheep taints the flock." The spirit of the age in no degree tends to sustain the old saying that "Live horses must draw the dead ones."

The writer already referred to, dwelling with great interest upon the social position and character of those then engaged in the art, goes on to say:—

"Anthony de Brossard, Lord of St. Martin and St. Brice, gentleman to Charles d'Artois, Count of Eu, a prince of noble blood royal, finding this art so considerable, that understanding it did not derogate from their nobility, obtained a grant in the year 1453 to establish a glass-house in his country, with prohibition of any other, and several other privileges he had annexed to it. The family and extraction of this Sieur de Brossard was considerable enough to bring him here as an example. The right of making glass being so honorable, since the elder sons of the family of Brossard left it off, the younger have taken it up, and continue it to this day. Messieurs de Caqueray, also gentlemen of ancient extraction, obtained a right of glass making, which one of their ancestors contracted by marriage in the year 1468, with a daughter of Anthony de Brossard, Lord of Saint Martin, that gentleman giving half of his right for part of her fortune—which was afterwards confirmed in the Chamber of Accounts. Messieurs Valliant, an ancient family of gentlemen, also obtained a grant of a glass-house for recompense of their services, and for arms a Poignard d'Or on azure, which agrees with their name and tried valor. Besides these families, who still continue to exercise this art, there are the Messieurs de Virgille, who have a grant for a little glass-house. Messieurs de la Mairie, de Suqrie, de Bougard, and several others, have been confirmed in their nobility during the late search in the year 1667.

"We have, moreover, in France, several great families, sprung from gentlemen glass-makers who have left the trade, among whom some have been honored with the purple and the highest dignities and offices."

Enough is recorded to show in what estimation the art was held in France by the government and people of that period; and it is in no wise wonderful that an art invested with so much distinction, conducted with so much secrecy, and characterized with so great a degree of romantic interest, should have given rise to strange reports and legends, hereafter to be referred to.

The writer referred to above states that there were two modes of manufacturing glass. One he denominates that of the "Great Glass-Houses," the other the "Small Glass-Houses." In the large houses the manufacture of window glass, and bottles for wine or other liquors, was carried on. He states:—

"The gentlemen of the Great Glass-Houses work only twelve hours, but that without resting as in the little ones, and always standing and naked. The work passes through three hands. First, the gentlemen apprentices gather the glass and prepare the same. It is then handed to the second gentlemen, who are more advanced in the

art. Then the master gentleman takes it, and makes it perfect by blowing it. In the little glass houses, where they make coach-glasses, drinking-glasses, crystals, dishes, cups, bottles, and such like sort of vessels, the gentlemen labor but six hours together, and then more come and take their places, and after they have labored the same time, they give places to the first, and thus they work night and day, the same workmen successively, as long as the furnace is in a good condition."

Every glass-maker will perceive from the foregoing description, that the same system prevails at the present time, as to the division of labor and period of labor, so far at least as "blown articles" are concerned. The names, too, then given to glass-makers' tools are retained to the present day, and, with slight difference, the shapes of the various tools are the same.

At the best, the manufactures of glass in France were for a long period much inferior to the Venetians and Bohemians; but after the introduction of window-glass from Venice, the making of crystal-glass greatly extended, and correspondingly improved.

In the year 1665, the government of France, desirous of introducing the manufacture of window-glass, offered sufficient inducement in money and privileges to a number of French artists (who had acquired the process at Murano, at Venice,) to establish works at Tourtanville. At these works the same system of blowing was followed as that used in the Venetian glass-works. A workman under this system, named Thevart, discovered the art of casting plate-glass, and obtained from the government a patent for the term of thirty years. He erected extensive works in Paris, and succeeded in what was then deemed an extraordinary feat, casting plates 84 inches by 50 inches, thereby exciting unbounded admiration.

The credit of the invention of casting plates of glass belongs to France, and the mode then adopted exists at the present day, with but slight variation. France monopolized the manufacture over one hundred years before it was introduced into any other country.

Writers generally agree that the manufacture of glass was introduced into England in the year 1557. "Friars' Hall," as stated by one writer, was converted into a manufactory of window-glass—other writers say, for crystal-glass, (called by the English "flint," from the fact of the use of flint-stones, which by great labor they burnt and ground.) In 1575, Friars' Hall Glass Works, with forty thousand billets of wood, were destroyed by fire.

In 1635, seventy-eight years after the art was introduced into England, Sir Robert Mansell introduced the use of coal fuel instead of wood, and obtained from the English government the monopoly of importing the fine Venetian drinking-glasses, an evidence that the art in England was confined as yet to the coarser articles. Indeed, it was not until the reign of William III. that the art of making Venetian drinking-vessels was brought into perfection—quite a century after the art was introduced into England—an evidence of the slow progress made by the art in that country.

As France was indebted to Venice for her workmen, so also was England indebted to the same source. Howell, in one of his "Familiar Letters," directed to Sir Robert Mansell, Vice-Admiral of England, says:—"Soon as I came to Venice I applied myself to dispatch your business according to instruction, and Mr. Seymour was ready to contribute his best furtherance. These two Italians are the best gentlemen workmen that ever blew crystal. One is allied to Antonio Miotte, the other is cousin to Maralao."

Although Sir Robert procured workmen from Venice, they were probably of an inferior character, and a space of fifty years elapsed before the English manufactories equalled the Venetian and French in the quality of their articles.

In the year 1670, the Duke of Buckingham became the patron of the art in England, and greatly improved the quality and style of the flint-glass by procuring, at great personal expense, a number of Venetian artists, whom he persuaded to settle in London. From this period, *i. e.*, about the commencement of the eighteenth century, the English glass manufactories, aided by the liberal bounties granted them in cash upon all glass exported by them or sold for export, became powerful and successful rivals of the Venetian and the French manufactories in foreign markets. The clear bounty granted on each pound of glass exported from England, which the government paid to the manufacturer, was not derived from any tax by impost or excise previously laid, for all such were returned to the manufacturer, together with the bounty referred to; thereby lessening the actual cost of the manufacture from 25 to 50 per cent, and enabling the English exporters to drive off all competition in foreign markets.

This bounty provision was annulled during the Premiership of Sir Robert Peel, together with all the excise duty on the home consumption.

In 1673, the first plate-glass was manufactured at Lambeth, under a royal charter; but no great progress was made at that time, and the works for the purpose were doubtless very limited. One hundred years later, *i. e.*, 1773, a company was formed under a royal charter, called the "Governor and Company of the British Cast Plate Glass Manufactory," with a capital of eighty shares of five hundred pounds each, their works being at Ravenshead, in Lancashire. These works have been very successfully conducted, and, according to a late writer, are rivaled by none, excepting those at "St. Gobain," in France. Since the excise duty on plate-glass has been repealed, its manufacture has increased to a wonderful extent—the quantity used in the construction of the Crystal Palace for the World's Fair being probably many times larger than that manufactured, twenty years since, in the kingdom of Great Britain in any one year.

It is to many persons matter of great surprise that the manufacture of plate-glass has never been introduced into this country. The whole process is a simple one. The materials are as cheap here as in England or in France. Machinery for the polishing of the surface is as easily procured, and water-power quite as abundant, as in either country. The manufacture with the materials so ready to the hand, and these together with the skill, labor, and demand, increasing every year, is most certain to realise a fair remunerating profit, and steady sale. Besseman has lately introduced a new method of casting plate-glass, which, should it equal the inventor's expectation, will reduce the cost, supersede the old plan, and eventually of course increase the consumption.

J.

TABLE OF ALL FREIGHTS ON LACKAWANNA COAL,

SHIPPED FROM RONDOUT TO NEW HAVEN, NEWPORT, PROVIDENCE, BOSTON, NEWBURYPORT, AND PORTSMOUTH, FROM THE YEAR 1844 TO THE YEAR 1851, BOTH INCLUSIVE; SHOWING THE HIGHEST, THE LOWEST, AND THE ACTUAL AVERAGE RATE OF EVERY YEAR AND TO EACH PLACE, PREPARED BY ALFRED WRIGHT, OF PROVIDENCE, R. I., AND IS BELIEVED TO DESERVE ENTIRE CONFIDENCE.

From Rondout to	Highest rate.	1844. Lowest rate.	Average rate.	Highest rate.	1845. Lowest rate.	Average rate.
New Haven	.75	.62½	.72	.95	.75	.79½
Newport	1.25	.80	.90½	.90	.90	.90
Providence	1.31	.87½	.89½	1.50	.90	1.00
Boston	1.12½	1.00	1.07½	1.87½	1.20	1.24½
Newburyport	1.25	1.00	1.15½	1.50	1.87½	1.47½
Portsmouth	1.10	1.25	1.21	1.25	1.25	1.25
		1846.			1847.	
New Haven	.90	.75	.78	1.12½	.75	.94
Newport	1.15	1.00	1.05	1.40	1.10	1.22
Providence	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.50	1.12½	1.31½
Boston	1.27	1.12½	1.23½	2.00	1.50	1.72
Newburyport	1.50	1.25	1.36	2.00	1.62½	1.80
Portsmouth	1.50	1.25	1.30	2 00	1.50	1.90
		1848.			1849.	
New Haven	.80	.75	.77	.87½	.75	.76
Newport	1.00	.87½	.90	.95	.90	.90½
Providence	1.00	.90	.93	1.12½	.90	.91
Boston	1.25	1.00	1.06	1.12½	1·06	1.10½
Newburyport	1.30	1.20	1.21	1.30	1.15	1.24½
Portsmouth	1.25	1.12½	1.18	1.12½	1.12½	1.12½
		1850.			1851.	
New Haven	1.25	.70	.80½	.95	.75	.91½
Newport	1.00	.85	.86½	1.10	.85	1.01½
Providence	1.10	.90	.91½	1.15	.87½	1.08½
Boston	1.60	1.10	1.15½	1.50	1.12½	1.28
Newburyport	1.25	1.00	1.19½	1.50	1.20	1.36½
Portsmouth	1.15	1.12½	1.13½	1.40	1.15	1.32½

The Hudson River, since 1836, has ordinarily been first closed by ice from the 10th to the 23d December, and its navigation been first open again from about the 23d February to 20th March; but in 1848, the Hudson opened on the 13th January, and closed again the 4th February, remaining shut until the 8th April.

The Delaware and Hudson Canal, since 1836, has ordinarily closed its season of navigation about the first of December, commencing operations again about the first of May.

The production of coal is necessarily light at Rondout, and the assortment of sizes imperfect on the opening of Canal, until the proper arrangements can be developed continuously, through the mines, railroads, and canal; which requires several days.

A knowledge of the depth of water at common tides, (in feet and inches,) with width of draw where there is a bridge, to the place of landing, is always desirable in engaging vessels. The difference in structure is such, that scarcely any two vessels, of the same burden, have the same draught of water, and a very large difference is common.

There is 11 feet of water, common tides, and more at full tides, on the bar at Rondout; vessels of larger draught have been laden within the bar to its then draft, and taken the balance of their cargoes outside without inconvenience. In delivering cargoes at New York, inconvenience has never been experienced in loading vessels, except from ice.

Procrastination of the shipment of coal from Rondout is generally a source of increased cost of consumers; and in the middle or latter part of the season, freights often advance with great rapidity, and the greater the advance the more difficult it has been to obtain vessels; nevertheless, freights rule more uniformly, and much lower at all times to New England from Rondout than from any ports on the Delaware, Schuylkill, or Susquehanna Rivers, and the higher the freights have ruled the larger has been that proportional difference.

COAL FOR SEA STEAMERS.

Freeman Hunt, Esq., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:*—

Sir:—In the progress which the world's affairs have made, there is no one thing that is contributing so much to the successful advancement of the many enterprises that are now rife, as the *steam marine of the world;* which seems to be concentrating towards the Equator. The golden lands of California and Australia are drawing towards and to them Commerce and the fluctuating business of the world; the events of the past three years have changed and are changing the phase of the world's affairs; this is the natural *sequence* of the substitution of steam marine for that of the sole dependence before, of sails and the winds.

On reviewing these facts, and their necessary concomitants, and taking a general and comprehensive view of the affairs and Commerce of the world, the question naturally arises what can be done to decrease the expense of steam marine; the item that forms the greatest expense is that of coal or fuel, the cost of which is now enormous; coal costs at Jamaica and Havana from $8 to $10 per ton, and the supply is very irregular; at Panama it is from $28 to $35; at San Francisco from $40 to $50 per ton.

Upon inquiry, it will be found that there are over forty steamers now running regularly between the ports of New York, New Orleans, Southampton, England, to Chagres, South America, and Central America, besides some three or four navigating the Orinoco River, South America, and a line running from England touching at the Windward Islands to Buenos Ayres, Rio Janeiro, Cape of Good Hope, and connecting with the Bombay and China lines.

The coal which all the steamers of the world use is either shipped from the United States or England, and when the cargo is insured the insurance doubles every 60 days that the vessels are out, thus increasing the cost of it. Each steamer is calculated to be at sea 265 days each year, and the average consumption is about thirty tons daily, thus, making the calculation for forty steamers, it will be as follows:—

Days each at sea	265
Steamers	40
Aggregate days at sea	10,600
Tons of coal each day	30
Aggregate amount of coal, tons	318,000

One-half this amount, *i. e.*, 159,000 tons, must be shipped from the United States or England to the ports of arrival for the steamers' return passages; calculating the cost, it will be as follows:—

Tons required		159,000
Cost in United States or England		$3
		$477,000
Freight		$4
		$1,908,000
Three per cent for insurance		572 40
Annual cost of coal for steamers		$1,908,572 40

For South America, Central America, and the West Indies—

The steamer Georgia uses		54	tons	daily at sea.
"	Falcon do	30	"	"
"	Ohio do	54	"	"
"	Cherokee do	30	"	"
"	Illinois do	50	"	"
"	Golden Gate do	35	"	"
"	Crescent City do	30	"	"
"	United States do	28	"	"
"	Prometheus do	30	"	"
"	Daniel Webster do	30	"	"
"	Northern Light do	30	"	"
"	El Dorado do	28	"	"
"	Philadelphia do	30	"	"

This is the ordinary use, the Georgia, and others of that class, have used as high as 80 tons daily.

From the above, it must appear to the candid and impartial inquirer, that not only the consumption of coal is large, but that there should and must be some means used to decrease its cost, and it follows, as a matter of course, if the expense is decreased the consumption will be greater, and suggest the inquiry of the existence of coal in the vicinity of the ports of arrival of the steamers.

It is with the view of bringing to notice, that the writer of this article has, of the existence of coal mines near the ports of arrival of the steamers, requiring capital and skill in the management thereof, by which a large amount of wealth may be accumulated, and also a vast amount of benefit accrue to the Commerce of this country.

There is, about 600 sailing miles from Chagres, a mine of coal, capable of furnishing at least 75,000 tons of coal annually, and one within 50 miles of Chagres, which could be made to yield some 50,000 tons annually; also on the Pacific there is a mine about 75 miles from Tigre Island, from which could be got at least 100,000 annually; the cost of getting all these mines in operation will not exceed $500,000.

The cost of coal per ton from these mines will not exceed $3 50 a ton when landed at the ports of arrival of the steamers, and can be readily disposed of at $8 per ton and upwards.

The effect that the working of these coal mines would have on commercial affairs and the steam marine, is hardly to be calculated; the wants of Commerce now breaking through the great obstacles of the enormous expense would be largely increased, commensurate with the demands of business, and the necessary exigencies of Commerce would be answered without the stringent obstacles that now bar and obstruct the stream of Commerce from flowing as freely as it should.

To the United States it presents untold advantages, as this country, above all other nations, is now, and the future presents better prospects, that we shall be in a better situation to reap the advantages from this new state of affairs, consequent upon an enlarging steam marine, than any other.

The writer of this article would be pleased to give any further information in his power to those who should feel disposed to become connected with enterprises of this nature, by addressing him through the New York Post-office.

JAMES D. STEVENSON.

FEES UNDER THE BRITISH NEW PATENT ACT.

The following list of fees under the Patent Law Amendment Act, which will come into force on the 1st of October, 1852, appears in the schedule annexed to the statute.

On leaving petition for grant of letters patent, £5; on notice of intention to proceed with the application, £5; on sealing of letters patent, £5; on filing specification, £5; at or before the expiration of the third year, £40; at or before the expiration of the seventh year, £80; on leaving notice of objection, £2; every search and inspection, 1s.: entry of assignment or license, 5s.; certificate of assignment or license, 5s.; filing application for disclaimer, £5; and caveat against disclaimer, £2.

The stamp duties to be paid, are as follow: On warrant of law officers for letters patent, £5; on certificate of payment of the fees payable at or before the expiration of the third year, £10; and on certificate of the fee payable at or before the expiration of the seventh year, £20.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

SOURCES OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

In alluding to a late article on this subject in the New Englander, a cotemporary takes occasion, from the valuable statistics of that article, to correct certain extravagant conclusions in regard to our population which have worked their way into the popular mind. Some time since the London Quarterly Review estimated our population as constituted in this strange proportion: Irish born, 3,000,000; Irish by blood, 4,500,000; German by blood or birth, 5,500,000; French or other Celts, by blood or birth, 3,000,000; colored, free or slave, 3,500,000: Anglo-Saxon, by blood or birth, 3,500,000; and the ridiculous speculation has been proclaimed in Congress. The article alluded to demonstrates the falsehood of these statements, and gives as nearly as practicable the facts. We quote from the New York Evangelist.

"After a careful analysis of the original elements of our population, in which it is shown conclusively, as it had been stated before by the Encyclopedia Americana, that of the thirteen colonies, at the time of the declaration of Independence, twelve were settled with colonists, who, with a few trifling exceptions, where Englishmen, the writer proceeds to estimate the relative proportions of which our composite population consists. Of the increase of population from the year 1701 to 1850, the date of the last census, estimated on the most careful grounds, not less than 15,000,000 are undeniably of the Anglo-Saxon race. If to these we add the 3,594,762 colored persons, whose increase of course, is easily ascertainable, it will leave 4,668,736 of our aggregate population of 23,263,498 to be divided between persons of Irish, German, French, and other descent—a result which accords with the estimate of Bancroft, and with the common sense view of the subject.

"An analysis of this foreign population is then made with great candor and skill, the process of which we cannot present. The results arrived at are contained in the following table, which though evidently undeniable, will probably surprise many of our readers, and perhaps furnish a better estimate of the relative moral forces which are at work among us:—

Population of the United States in 1850	23,263,488
Anglo-Saxon, by birth or blood	15,000,000
African	3,594,762
Irish	2,269,000
German	1,900,000
French &c.	499,636
Whole number of emigrants from all countries between 1790 & 1850.	2,759,329
Survivors of these in 1850	1,511,990
Whole number of immigrants and descendants	4,350,934
Survivors of these	3,103,094
Total of all our population exclusive of Anglo-Saxon blood	8,263,498

"Though smaller than generally supposed, this is a large element; for which it is hardly possible to do too much. It opens a field of comprehensive missionary labor to which the church has hardly begun adequately to address herself. Yet it is not, and never can become, the ruling, moulding element of the country. The institutions and opinions identified with our Puritan ancestry are high above all the influences which can be brought against them of foreign source. There is in these figures, enough to stimulate to Christian exertion, but not enough to intimidate or discourage us."

POPULATION OF THE CANADAS.

The result of the late population returns has been published. From it we learn that, for the first time, the population of Upper exceeds that of Lower Canada. The Upper Province has increased more rapidly in population within the last four years, than in any similar period which preceded it, with the single exception of the four years between 1830 and 1834, a time of extraordinary emigration:—

1824	151,097	1839	407,515
1830	210,437	1841	465,357
1832	261,060	1842	486,055
1834	320,693	1848	723,292
1836	372,502	1852	950,530

In the ten years from 1841 to the end of 1851, the population was considerably more than doubled, while during the same period, that of the neighboring Union only increased a little more than a third.

The population of the Lower Province is announced by the Quebec *Canadian* at 904,782, a much larger number than was expected, which leaves a majority to Upper Canada of only 45,748. The Lower Province, the last eight years, has been advancing faster than ever before, as will be seen by the following statement:—

1825	423,680	1844	690,782
1831	511,919	1852	904,782

Great as this is, the same period of eight years has enlarged the population of Upper Canada far more:—

	1844.	1852.
Upper Canada	560,000	950,530
Lower Canada	690,772	904,782

MONTREAL.—*Ville Marie*, now called *Montreal*, had on the—

17th May,	1642	40 to 45 souls.
	1650	25 to 30 families.
	1677	1,500 to 1,600 souls.
Per census,	1720	3,000
	1750	4,000
	1765	7,000
	1805	9,020
	1831	27,297
	1835	31,193
	1842	40,464
	1852	57,715

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN SAN FRANCISCO.

The San Francisco *Herald* says that the population of that place, drawn from every quarter of the globe, and made up of every race, continues to increase with astonishing rapidity. The number of passengers landed at San Francisco during the month of May was as follows:—

From Panama, by steamers and sail vessels	4,561
China	2,445
San Juan del Sud	1,743
Chili	791
Mexico	603
France	201
Oregon	107
New York and Boston direct	89
Sydney	55
Sandwich Islands	36
Society Islands	10
Total	10,641

The *Herald* adds, that the departures during the month were unusually few, probably not exceeding fifteen hundred; and it estimates that the population of the State will be increased during the present year at least one hundred thousand.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

AN IMPORTANT COMMERCIAL SUGGESTION.

It is well known to the government of the United States, to the merchants of our great cities, and to large classes of the community, that even under the liberal arrangements of the tariff of 1846, smuggling is still carried on to a very great extent. There are many causes for this state of things, which cannot be obviated by human wisdom, nor by legislative enactment; but a suggestion has been so often made to us, confirmed by so many illustrations, and sustained by so many facts that have come within our own knowledge, that we feel it a duty that we owe to the government, to the Commerce and to the people of the country, to amplify it in a page or two of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

By the original statutes of Congress, a provision was made, which required that every invoice of goods purchased in a foreign country, should be sworn to as a true exhibit of facts, by the purchaser, or agent of the capitalist, *in the place where the goods were bought.* Unfortunately, the spirit of this rule has been continually violated. It has so happened that in a very large majority of instances, perhaps, the goods which have been purchased in inland towns, as in the case of Manchester, Sheffield, Birmingham, Lyons, Paris, Geneva, Turin, Florence and Rome, have been transported to the coast, before the regular invoices for the purchase of the same have been exhibited before the American consul and sworn to, in order to comply with the requisitions of the law.

We shall confine the few remarks we have to make, chiefly to the city of Lyons. It is well known that most of the silk goods manufactured in Europe and imported into this country, are purchased in the city of Lyons. Our purchases of silk goods in that town during the last few years, have not fallen much short of $25,000,000 on an average; and yet very few of the invoices of these goods, have been sworn to before the American consul in that port.

We do not know what may be the motives of our merchants, or of their commercial agents, in this course; but we are perfectly sure from representations which have been made to us from many quarters, that the result is particularly deleterious to the revenue of the Federal Government. Every reader knows, that silk goods being capable of transport and introduction with great facility, in consequence of the compactness with which they can be carried, admit of being brought into this country, under evasions of the customs laws, as very few other goods can be. If our information is to be relied upon, several hundred cases of valuable Lyonese silks are every year smuggled into the city of New York, whose aggregate value amounts to several millions of dollars.

Now it must be evident to the most common reader, that the only effectual way of preventing this source of depletion to the public revenue, is to procure the publication of a specific order from the financial department of the government, in concurrence, if need be, with that of the department of state, requiring that in every instance, without exception, the purchaser of goods in foreign countries, shall give his oath to the accuracy and truth of the invoice before the American consul in the place where the goods are purchased.

It must be evident on the first blush, that if this order were issued, the consul would have the authority to enforce it, and the consequence would inevitably be, that he would be able to detect any contemplated frauds upon the revenue long before those

frauds could be carried into effect. For knowing all the manufactories of the products that are exported, the consul would have no difficulty in procuring from the proprietors weekly tables of the goods which they had manufactured for or sold to American capitalists; and wherever any invoice of goods has been shipped, a reference to the records of the consulate would enable the consul at once to detect any attempt that was being made to take goods from a foreign port, for introduction into the United States, without an honest purpose of having a fair exhibit made of them before the authorities of the American customs, at the ports were the importations were made.

Great complaints are made by the government, and by our honest and upright merchants, of the frauds that are being continually practiced upon the revenues of our government. But we can discover no mode so effectual, if indeed there be any mode whatever besides this, of putting an end to these frauds at once and forever. Respectable merchants, certainly, can raise no objection against such an arrangement; and we rejoice that it is the intention of the administration now in power, to issue such an order, and we doubt not that it will be attended with the most beneficial results. Although we trust that the time is not far distant, when the principles of Free Trade, by the concurrence of all great commercial nations, will be carried into general effect; still, nothing can be more repugnant to the sense of honesty and of truth, which lies at the basis of all sound commercial arrangements, than the fact that dishonest, selfish, and dishonorable speculators, should be able, by their trickery and corrupt means, to get ahead of the honest, industrious and honorable merchants of the country, and by such unfair means secure advantages to themselves, which are attended with the most lamentable and degrading results upon the general progress of Commerce.

We trust that our information is derived from authentic sources, and that there will be no delay in the issuing of an order which will procure the result that we have so long labored for, and which we can imagine no other means for so effectually bringing about.

METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING BANK NOTES TO PREVENT FORGERY.*

This is a book of exceeding interest and importance to the business community. It relates to an intricate subject, of which but little is known; yet, in which, all who have to do with bank bills, have a vital personal concern. No reader of the bank note detectors can fail of the impression, that the paper currency of the country is in a perilous state. The number and ingenuity of counterfeits that are made upon the best banks in the country, are creating a confusion which threatens to render our currency universally unsafe and worthless. No bank is exempt; and no skill or artistic merit is beyond the reach of the counterfeiter's attack.

The evil has become enormous, and appears to be increasing. Laws can afford but a feeble protection against it; for of all crimes, counterfeiting is the most stealthy and astute. What is to be done? is the anxious question which many a business man has asked himself.

The *source* of this great evil, Mr. Ormsby, in this volume, clearly and undeniably demonstrates. He shows by a process of reasoning which no mind can resist, that counterfeiting is inevitable so long as the present system of bank note engraving is persisted in.

Our notes consist of a variety of title pictures, vignettes, scroll work, denominational figures, &c., all detached, and as it appears from this work, engraved separately, and introduced upon the plate by machinery, for the sake of economy. Though we

*A description of the present system of bank note engraving, showing its tendency to facilitate counterfeiting. To which is added, A New Method of constructing Bank Notes to prevent Forgery. By William L. Ormsby. New York: W. L. Ormsby, 1852.

believe that no kind of engraving costs so much as bank notes, it appears that none is so easily and cheaply done. The use of dies and machinery, while it secures great profits to the engraver, puts it in the power of the counterfeiter to imitate any work however good. He can obtain machinery and dies as well as the bank note engraver, for they are in the market, and can be had at trifling prices by any one that wishes them. The counterfeiter, moreover, finds it perfectly easy to procure the separate portions of a bill from different engravers, without any knowledge on their part of his design. Here then lies the real source of the difficulty—the patchwork style of engraving and the use of machinery and dies.

Mr. Ormsby proposes to strike at the root of the evil, by requiring of every bill one complete and indivisible design, covering the whole surface of the bill, with the lettering intervoven by the hand of the artist so as to form an integral part of the design. This will compel the forger to do the whole work himself; which he cannot do without being a good engraver. He cannot go to one artist with one pretense for one part and to another for another part, without either knowing the ultimate design for which they are to be used, and then combine them together; any more than he could obtain the engraving of a portrait, by procuring the eye of one artist and the nose of another. Each bank, moreover, would hold its own plate, and no part of it could be used for other bills, as is now the case with dies.

We see not, why Mr. Ormsby has not discovered a complete and practicable remedy for this great and growing evil of counterfeiting. He has shown, beyond cavil, the utter weakness and insecurity of the present system of engraving; and the attention of the banks ought to be instantly given to the subject.

They have a deep concern in it, as have the public also. When counterfeiting has become so great, and such incalculable losses are entailed upon the community, it is the least that can be righteously demanded of our banks, that they take the pains to examine the subject. A remedy, plausible at least, is offered to them. Whose will be the guilt, if the evil goes on unchecked, and the public be robbed by the introduction of counterfeits against which there is no means of guarding under the present system? We ought to say, that the work is splendidly executed, in large octavo, illustrated with a great number of beautiful plates, and bound in admirable style. It would be an ornament to any center table, and possesses an interest which ought to secure for it an extended sale.

POLKA NUTS: A NEW ARTICLE OF COMMERCE.

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

DEAR SIR:—Herewith you will receive a specimen of a quantity of nuts recently imported from Cape de Verd. Soon after they were landed, the writer—who has been in the wholesale drug business for many years—was accosted on 'Change by Dr. Pierce, the very intelligent and scientific Drug Inspector at this port, who stated that several sailors and laboring men had eaten of them, and had become seriously sickened by this gratification of their curiosity. The article was entered at the Custom-house by the consignee as "Polka Nuts," which was supposed to be the vulgar name at the islands.

Another importation of the same article from Boa Vista, Gambia, has been entered by another house as "Pulga Nuts;" a sample of these are also inclosed to you. The two specimens are plainly designated upon the envelopes, but the perfect similarity is readily discernable.

The sudden and decided effects on the parties who had partaken of this new article of Commerce, led to the anxious inquiries,—What can it be? Are these nuts poisonous?

The above inquiries elicited the accompanying communications, which, if considered as suited to the pages of your Journal, you are at liberty to insert. As these nuts yield largely an oil adapted to machinery and illuminating purposes, it is not improbable that during the present high prices of sperm and other oils suited to these uses, they may become an article of very considerable importation. It will therefore be perceived that there is at least a possibility that the publication of this correspondence may serve as a benevolent check to the disposition of some persons to prove the qualities of substances, by tasting and even swallowing, before becoming acquainted with the nature and power of the articles so unhesitatingly received into their stomachs. *Nuts* are particularly attractive to boys and laborers in the stores of merchants and upon our wharves; and it would be well for them to know that several kinds of the nuts of Commerce are powerfully medicinal, and some decidedly poisonous.

Boston, September 22, 1852. W. A. B.

Boston, July 20, 1852.

Dr. C. H. Pierce, Cambridge:—

Dear Sir:—With thanks for the specimen of the "Polka Nuts from Cape de Verd." I have queried whether or not they may be one and the same with the "Physic Nuts" of the East and of South America. What think you? I give an extract from Pereira on that article. Yours, truly,

WM. A. BREWER.

[Extract from Pereira's Elements, &c., London Edition, Vol. II., p. 1,133.]

EUPHORBIACEÆ.

Jatropha Curcas.—[Polka Nuts of Cape De Verd?—W. A. B.]

"Jatropha Curcas is a native of South America and Asia. Its fruit is the *nux cathartica Americana*, or *nux Carbadensis* of some writers. Its seeds, which are occasionally met with in the shops, are called *physic nuts* (*semina ricini majoris*, or *gros pignon d'Inde.*) Pelletier and Caventon analyzed them under the name of Croton Seeds,* and extracted from them a volatile acrid acid, called *jatrophic acid*, (see page 1,112.) Mr. Bennet† swallowed four seeds, and experienced a very unpleasant burning sensation in the stomach and bowels, with nausea, which, after an interval of nearly two hours, terminated in vomiting: their purgative effects followed soon afterwards, and were mild; the sickness had then nearly passed away, but the burning sensation continued for some time longer. In large doses they are energetic poisons.

"The oil (*Oleum Jatrophæ Curcadis* seu *Oleum Infernale*) is analogous in its properties to Croton Oil. It is occasionally used as a drastic purgative. In India it is used for lamps."

Cambridge, July 26, 1852.

Dr. Wm. A. Brewer, Boston:—

Dear Sir:—I have been absent from town for the last three days, or else I should sooner have answered your kind communication on the *Polka Nut.*

I think, with yourself, that it must be the "Jatropha Curcas," and the following description from the "*Dictionnaire des Drogues*, by Chevalliers, Richard & Guillemin," confirms your extract from Pereira.

"It very much resembles the castor oil seed, but is much larger." * * * * "It is of a blackish brown color, convex on one side, flat on the other, with a slightly prominent longitudinal line on both faces. The internal seed is invested with a pellicle, and its white, oily albumen incloses a large embryo, formed of two foliaceous cotyledons, which can be easily separated from each other."

I see, also, that Wood & Bache allude to these nuts under the head of *Barbadoes Nuts*, in the appendix of the United States Dispensatory, ninth edition, and state that "the fruit is a three-celled capsule, containing one seed in each cell, and is about the size of a walnut." Out of the whole lot I could only find one specimen of the fruit, and this corresponds to the above description.

Merat & Delens, in the *Dict. de Mat. Med.*, state that the oil is intermediate in its cathartic power between croton and castor oil. Yours truly,

C. H. PIERCE.

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* Journ. de Pharm., t. xv., page 514. † Lond. Med. Gaz., ix., 8.

"NAVAL DRY DOCKS OF THE UNITED STATES."

ALBANY, August 26th, 1852.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

SIR:—In the last number of your Magazine is a notice of a work published by Chas. B. Norton, on the "Naval Dry Docks of the United States."

I beg to refer you to the article "Dry Dock," in Appleton's Dictionary of Mechanics and Engineering, published some two years and a half since, wherein you will find word for word nearly the whole of the extracts which you have made from, and credited to, the work published by Mr. Norton.

Under these circumstances I appeal to you, if it is not due to the Messrs. Appleton, who have the copyright of the Dictionary, and to myself, the contributor of the article referred to, to correct your notice of the work in question.

Respectfully your obedient servant, W. J. McALPINE.

It is due to all parties to state, in reference to the subject of the State Engineer's letter, that no evidence appears in the work of Mr. Stewart, "On Naval Dry Docks," which was before us at the time the article was written, that the extracts which we made were other than original. It is true that it is to be found almost word for word in Appleton's Dictionary of Mechanics, but it appears there likewise as original. It might have been an oversight in the author of the volume on "Dry Docks," in omitting to give credit to the latter work; or he might have conceived that the latter work was, to some extent, compiled from other sources, and not strictly entitled to the credit. However the case may be, if there had been any indication that the extracts which were made were other than original, in the volume of which we were speaking, the *Merchants' Magazine* would most cheerfully have followed its long established rule, which is also the Scriptural rule, of giving "honor to whomsoever honor is due."

THE ECONOMICAL HARDWARE MERCHANT.

A few years since, a worthy hardware merchant, who had made his fortune at the business in the city of New York, determined to sell off his stock and retire. His goods were soon disposed of, and the shop empty. In sweeping out the store one day, he found in the crevices and corners a few shot (about twenty) of all sizes; he gathered them up in the hollow of his hand, and stood for some seconds gazing at them; at length, seizing his hat, he rushed into an adjoining liquor store, where they also sold shot, and thus addressed the proprietor:—"In cleaning my store I found a few shot; they are no use to me, but to you they are worth something. I don't value them very highly, but perhaps (here he lowered his voice) you would give me *half a glass of beer* for them."

Reader, do you suppose this worthy, we should, perhaps, say mean, hardware merchant was either a patron or reader of the *Merchants' Magazine?*

PAYMENT OF DEBTS BY BANKRUPTS.

We occasionally see the announcement in the public prints, says the *Sachem*, that some individual, who had been unfortunate in business and compelled to avail himself of the lenity of his creditors, or the forms of law, to obtain a legal discharge from the payment of his debts, had again embarked on the dangerous sea of trade, been favored with prosperous gales, and had liquidated the old indebtedness, principal and interest. Such conduct is frequently lauded in most extravagant terms, as though the morality which impelled the act were of a higher order than could reasonably be expected from frail humanity. We see nothing in such an act beyond the performance of a duty which is demanded by the plain precepts of pure morality. We are not of the number who measure their duty to others by what the law prohibits and enforces. We acknowledge, in the matter of paying debts, the higher law of conscience and fair dealing between man and man. We do not find fault with the statute which enables the honest debtor, upon a surrender of his property to his creditors, to obtain his discharge from his liabilities. Were there no such provision, a single unfeeling creditor might doom to helpless poverty and misery his unfortunate debtor, and those dependent on him for support. But we do find fault with, and most conscientiously condemn

that lax morality which considers a debt paid by a release, voluntarily given, or a discharge obtained by operation of law. It is true that in such a case the law will not enforce payment, notwithstanding the individual thus discharged may afterwards have abundance and to spare, wherewith to cancel his debts. But the moral duty still remains, and, in our opinion, no one who has it in his power to pay his debts, and refuses to do so on the plea that the law will not compel him, is entitled to be considered an honest man.

MAILLEFERT'S INVENTION FOR BLASTING ROCKS.

NEWBURYPORT, September 13, 1852.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:*—

DEAR SIR:—In your number for September, you have an article on Mr. Maillefert's *invention* for blasting rocks under water without drilling, and I am informed by the same article that Mr. M. has taken out a patent for this process. It is true that his application of the process is new, but the process itself is an old one, and has been long in use for a different but similar purpose on the shores of North Carolina. For miles along those shores, and extending far out to sea, are numberless sand-bars, at all depths and of all sizes. Within these bars, deeply covered by the sand, lie buried huge trunks of the cypress and red oak, which are sought for by the inhabitants of the coast, and when found converted to various uses. The process of discovering and obtaining possession of these resembles, in every respect, that of Mr. M., except in the use of the battery, the knowledge of that useful article not yet having penetrated the tangles and morasses of the Dismal Swamp. The trunks are discovered by probing the sand with long poles, the contact of which with a hard substance indicates the presence of the object of search.

The position of the log being marked, it is freed from the superincumbent sand, and loosened from its bed, by a subaqueous explosion of gunpowder, exactly after the fashion of Mr. M.'s discharges upon Pot Rock and Gridiron.

The connection of the flask or canister with the surface is effected by one of the enormously long hollow canes of that region, through which the train is laid which fires the flask. This process has been used there for years, as is well known to all who are conversant with that region, and must have been seen thousands of times by the persons employed on the Coast Survey, who have been stationed about Cape Hatteras, and to them I refer for confirmation of my statement.

Yours, respectfully, L. J. GOODWIN.

ADULTERATION OF PALE ALE.

Dr. Liebig writes to a gentlemen in London on the subject of the adulteration of pale ales, by the use of strychnine. This poisonous alkaloid is largely used, so it is said, as a substitute for hops, in the manufacture of beer, and great alarm has been excited by late developments among the lovers of ale. Liebig recalls the memory of the Westphalian brewer, of a quarter century ago, who fell to adulterating his beer with *nux vomica*. Speedily ill effects produced an exposure: medical men now find a remarkable similarity between the effect of *nux vomica* and that of strychnine. Good ale depends upon the careful selection of the best malt and hops, and continental brewers are acknowledged to be inferior to the English; while Dr. Liebig, speaking from his personal experience in sundry chemical investigations, denies the imputation of the poison. And he adds that this mode of adulteration can never take place, because of the criminality of the act, and its certain detection.

VALUE OF MONEY.

If you want to learn the value of money, says the "*Knickerbocker*," go and labor for a day or two as a hod-carrier, beneath the scorching rays of a summer sun. This is an excellent idea, and if many of our young gentlemen had to earn their dollars in that way, how much less dissipation and crime we would witness every day! So of our fashionable young ladies, if they, like some of the poor seamstresses of our large cities, had to earn their dollars by making shirts at ten cents apiece, how much less finery should we see about them, and how much more truthful notions would they have of their duties of life and their obligations to the rest of the world.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Son of the Wilderness; a Dramatic Poem in Five Acts.* By FREDERIC HALSA. Translated from the German, by CHAS. EDWARD ANTHON.

This drama is one of the most effective acting plays, and at the same time one of the most beautiful poems of the later literature of Germany. Under the name of Ingomar, it is familiar to English and American audiences; and Mr. Anthon's translation should make it a favorite with English and American readers. It is a rare instance of the union of freedom and fidelity in translation. To render word for word and at the same to transfer the *spirit* of the original, are the two great aims of translation; a difficult task, even in rendering prose. To render verse into verse is most difficult of all. This task Mr. Anthon has performed with rare success. We have compared his work with the original, and except in several instances of apparently intentional omission (on account, we suppose, of the too great freedom of the original) it is remarkably literal. Yet the English verse of Mr. Anthon is natural, vigorous, and idiomatic. It is English poetry of a high order. It reads as if original. It deserves a place among the few very successful translations we possess. We do not think we go too far in assigning it a place by the side of Coleridge's "Wallenstein," which has been called a transfusion rather than a translation, and which, in fact, has probably less claim to the merit of strict fidelity to the original. Mr. Anthon has recently been appointed professor of history and belles-lettres in the Free Academy. His beautiful translation furnishes satisfactory proof of his qualifications for an important branch of his new duties.

2.—*Stray Meditations; or Voices of the Heart in Joy and Sorrow.* By JOS. P. THOMPSON, Pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle. 12mo. pp. 228. New York: A. S. Barnes.

This is not a volume of elaborate and consecutive essays, with a pretense to logical or rhetorical completeness; but a book of fragments, embodying thoughts that flowed at ease through the author's mind. It claims to be "Utterances of the Heart;" but there are no expressions of the heart above the common sensations which pass through every person's mind when feeling and affection flow on in an even tenor. Of course it has no claim to any such pretension, further than we may regard the author as a good-natured man. It is what may be called a clever book—more interesting to the writer and his friends than any one else; and containing nothing by which it may make any special claim upon the attention of the public.

3.—*Five Years in an English University.* By CHARLES ASTOR BRISTED. Second edition. 12mo. pp. 441. New York: G. P. Putnam.

A second edition of this agreeable volume has already made its appearance. It presents a picture of English university life, just as it is; a subject of which very little is known in this country, but one that is full of interest to every scholar and literary man. The picture here presented is written in a somewhat egotistical style, which a pure taste would condemn. But for this, the author makes an ample apology. It must be remembered that the subject is one of the most difficult of which to make an interesting book; yet the success of the writer has been proved by the reception of his work.

4.—*Atlantic and Transatlantic; Sketches Afloat and Ashore.* By CAPTAIN MACKINNON, R. N., Author of "Slaver Warfare in the Parana." 12mo. pp. 324. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Capt. Mackinnon is an intelligent educated Englishman, and writes with candor and fairness. He commends the civility of Americans to Englishmen in particular. The work contains much interesting and valuable information, and is written in a very agreeable and pleasant style. Few works relating to this country are more deserving, or will attract more attention from the American people.

5.—*Tallis's Scripture Natural History for Youth.* London and New York: John Tallis & Co.

Parts 15 and 16 of this excellent work contain some thirty beautifully executed colored illustrations. It is beyond all cavil the best work of its class published.

6.—*An Address Delivered before the Association of the Alumni of Harvard College*, by ROBERT C. WINTHROP, July 22d, 1852. 8vo., pp. 59. Cambridge: John Bartlett.

Whatever Mr. Winthrop attempts with his pen possesses a dignity, gracefulness, and elegance attainable by very few of our public men. The annual meetings of the Alumni of Harvard contain a body of men unequalled in intelligence, education, and mental accomplishments by any other general assemblage in the country. On such an occasion the subject of this eloquent discourse was, "The peculiar obligations and duties resting upon educated men, and the temptations which interfere with their just discharge." It is not proper that we should follow the speaker through all the points of his address, but we desire particularly to turn the attention of all our readers to this pamphlet, which is the gem of the season of a year so fertile in public addresses, and assure them that its perusal will impart abundant satisfaction, and impress them with noble and sublime views of their duties and dangers as educated men.

7.—*Shades of Character; or, the Infant Pilgrim.* By ANNE WOODBROOFFE. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 329 and 308. New York: Robert Carter & Brother.

This is one of those thoughtful tales, free from the exaggerations which are usual in such works, and aiming to present various phases of character, such as are affected by religious influences. Of course there is here a wide field for delineation, and the author has improved it to portray not only the good, but many of those whose characters are misguided and distorted. It is a work which will interest and instruct all readers who are gratified with the serious class of tales.

8.—*America as I found it.* By the author of "Mary Lundie Duncan." 12mo., pp. 440. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

The portion of America viewed by this author is confined to very small districts of the United States; nevertheless it is regarded by her as of sufficient extent to represent the whole continent. The volume consists of every-day observations among a very clever portion of the community, chiefly in New York and the region around. Hospitality and respect were everywhere extended to the matron, and with the best feelings at heart she has written a very pleasant narrative of her visit from England to this country. There is a large portion of the reading public which will be pleased with these views of a pious, thoughtful, intelligent, and sensible writer.

9.—*Pierre; or, the Ambiguities.* HERMAN MELLVILLE. 12mo., pp. 495. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Melville's reputation as a writer is widely spread. The reception of his earliest works by the public has been of the most flattering kind. This volume is more imaginative in its character than the former ones, and aims to present the workings of an over-sensitive spirit. The story is well told as usual, although not perhaps equal in interest to some of the other volumes from the same pen.

10.—*A Manual of Grecian Antiquities. with Numerous Illustrations.* By CHAS. ANTHON, LL. D. 12mo. pp. 436. New York: Harpers & Brothers.

This volume is prepared upon the same plan as the "Roman Antiquities," by the same author. The materials appear to have been gathered from the latest and best sources. They are arranged with a clearness and method which will render their comprehension by the student easy and rapid.

11.—*A Journal of Summer Time in the Country.* By Rev. ROBERT ARIS WILLMOTT, incumbent of Bear Wood, Berks, author of "Jeremy Taylor, a Biography." 18mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Another volume of "Appletons' Popular Library of the best Authors," and equal in value and interest to any that have preceded it. The selections are made with commendable taste and judgment.

12.—*The Indian Tribes of Guiana.* By Rev. W. H. BRETT. 18mo., pp. 352. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This work embraces accounts of the British missions among the various tribes at Guiana, from the year of their commencement until the present time. Aside from its value to those who take an interest in Christian missions, it contains much incidentally interesting information touching the tribes of the Guiana Indians.

13.—*The Men of the Time; or Sketches of Notables.* 12mo. pp. 564. New York: Redfield.

The plan of this work is excellent. It consists of a series of sketches of living authors, architects, artists, composers, demagogues, divines, dramatists, engineers, journalists, ministers, monarchs, moralists, philanthropists, poets, politicians, preachers, savans, statesmen, travelers, voyagers and warriors. That portion of it relating to the eminent men of England and the Continent, derived from various German *Conversations-Lexikon*, is quite complete, and embraces brief notices of almost every European of reputation. The failure is in the home biography. Some of the most prominent men are omitted entirely, and others introduced who possess little or no merit in any of the departments of life. On the whole, however, it is an interesting volume, and contains, as President Fillmore says, "precisely that kind of information, that every public and intelligent man desires to see; especially in reference to the distinguished men of Europe."

14.—*Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Thomas Chalmers, D. D., LL. D.* By his son-in-law, Rev. WILLIAM HANNA, LL.D. In four volumes. Vol. 4. 12mo. New York; Harper & Brothers.

In the three preceding volumes, Dr. Hanna confined himself to the labor of the biographer as distinguished from that of the critic or the historian. The present volume is devoted to a general narrative of the disruption in the Scotch Church. Few works devoted to theological biography, will be more prized or read by men of intellect in the Christian church, irrespective of sectarian tendencies.

15.—*The History of the Restoration of the Monarchy in France.* By ALPHONSO DE LAMARTINE, Author of the "History of the Girondists." Vol. 2. 12mo. pp. 499. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume completes the history of the Restoration. Lamartine may be regarded as the poet historian. The translation appears to do full justice to the original, which is perhaps the highest praise that we could bestow on anything from the pen of the gifted Frenchman.

16.—*The Works of Shakespeare.* By the Rev. H. N. HUDSON, A. M. 18mo. New York: James Munroe & Co.

The fifth volume of this beautiful edition has made its appearance. Our opinion of its merits has been so frequently expressed in this department of the *Merchants' Magazine*, that it seems almost a work of supererogation on our part to say more. It is, of all editions yet published, a favorite one with us, and we have some half-dozen or more.

17.—*Hagar; a Story of To day.* By ALICE CAREY. 12mo., pp. 300. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Although a story of every-day life, there is a freshness and a flowing fancy about these pages which invest them with much attractiveness. The tale itself is simple, possessing no special intricacy of plot, but its characters are delineated with a tenderness and pathos, so pure and free from affectation, that they secure the interest and gratification of the reader.

18.—*Waverley Novels.* Illustrated Library edition. Vols. VII. and VIII. Boston: B. B. Mussey.

The seventh and eighth volumes of this handsomely printed and bound Library Edition of the Scott Novels, embrace Ivanhoe, the Bride of Lammermoor, and A Legend of Montrose.

19.—*Tallis's Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* London and New York: John Tallis & Co.

Parts 50 and 51 of this splendid collection of Maps, and with letter-press description, contain maps of Leeds, Aberdeen and Perth, with their public buildings, done in the highest style of the art.

20.—*The Life and Works of Robert Burns.* Edited by ROBERT CHALMERS. In four volumes. Vol. 3. 12mo., pp. 317. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is, in our judgment, the most desirable edition of the life and works of Burns ever published.

21.—*Clifton; or Modern Fashions, Morals, and Politics. A Novel.* By ARTHUR TOWNLEY. Philadelphia: A Hart.

The extracts we have read from this work have given us a high opinion of the talents of the unknown writer. It is evidently from the pen of one who has seen the world with a "thoughtful eye," and who has mingled actively in the scenes he so vividly portrays. In politics he is rather radical; in religion decidedly liberal; in morals sound and high-toned; and, as regards *fashion*, we should not take him for a devotee to the follies of "Japonicadom."

22.—*Chambers' Pocket Miscellany.* Vol. 5. 12mo. pp. 180. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

It may be said of the numerous tales contained in this volume, that they are interesting to all readers, and suited for perusal at leisure moments, especially when traveling.

23.—*Sick Calls: from the Diary of a Missionary Priest.* By Rev. EDWARD PRICE M. A. 18mo., pp. 388. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

In these pages we are presented with some vivid sketches of the scenes witnessed by a Roman Catholic clergymen at the death beds of a large number of persons, embracing members of every profession and almost every pursuit of life.

24.—*Waverley Novels. Heart of Midlothian.* Vol. 8. Part 6. 12mo., pp. 325. Part 7. *Bride of Lammermoor.* pp. 341. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New York: A. O. Roorback.

A reprint of the Abbotsford edition, which contained all the author's corrections.

25.—*Waverley Novels.* Parts 1, 2, 3, 4. *Waverley, Guy Mannering, Rob Roy, The Antiquary.* 8vo. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

A cheap edition of the Waverley novels, which is printed in fair and legible type, on clear and white paper.

26.—*The Two Fathers; an Unpublished Original Spanish Work.* By ADADUS CALPE. Part 2. 12mo., pp. 307. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

This is the second part of a work which has not a single commendable feature about it, unless it be the typography and binding, which is in the usual good style of Messrs. Stringer & Townsend.

POSTAGE ON THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

The new act of Congress regulating and reducing the rates of postage on "newspapers and periodicals," (or, to speak more accurately, on newspapers, magazines, and reviews, for a newspaper is a periodical, as much so as a magazine or review, although by the act of Congress, and in common parlance, a periodical is understood to mean a monthly or quarterly, in distinction from the daily, tri-weekly, semi-weekly, or weekly journal,) goes into operation "from and after the thirtieth day of September, 1852."

A monthly number of the *Merchants' Magazine* weighs a fraction under SIX OUNCES, but is rated as weighing SIX. The postage on a single monthly number, according to the act of Congress, (which, together with a tabular statement of the rates of postage, will be found in another part of the present number of this Magazine,) is FOUR CENTS, and if paid quarterly or yearly in advance at the office where the said *Merchants' Magazine* is delivered, one-half the above rates is charged. The postage, therefore, on the *Merchants' Magazine* is—

For a single number sent to a subscriber	4 cents.
For quarter, (three monthly numbers,) paid in advance	6 "
Or for one year, (twelve monthly numbers,)	24 "

Our subscribers will therefore find it for their interest to pay yearly in advance the trifling sum of 24 cents, which is but *two cents* for each of the three monthly numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*—a great reduction on the old rates.

HUNT'S

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1852.

Art. 1.—COMMERCE OF FRANCE IN 1851.

A GENERAL SYNOPSIS OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE WITH ITS COLONIES AND WITH FOREIGN POWERS, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

We have given an annual review of the results of French Commerce, in the *Merchants' Magazine*, for every year since 1843. This review we have uniformly derived from the annual *Tableau General* published by the *Direction Generale des Douanes*, at Paris.* We are again indebted to the kindness and attention of our friend and correspondent at Paris, Mons. D. L. Rodet, of the Paris Chamber of Commerce, for a copy of this voluminous document, for the year 1851.

For explanations of the French system of classification of the various articles which enter into Commerce, and which are distinguished as animal, vegetable, mineral, and manufactured; of the distinction between general Commerce and special Commerce, and between official and actual values, we must refer the reader to the volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine*, cited below. It will be sufficient for our present purpose to say, that the term General Commerce includes *all imports*, of whatever origin or destination, whether coming from a colony or foreign power, and whether intended for home consumption, warehousing, re-export, or transit, and all exports, of whatever origin or destination, French, foreign, or colonial. Special Commerce on the other hand, embraces only imports for home consumption, and exports of articles produced in France or nationalized by paying duties, and afterwards exported.

The total aggregate of the general Commerce of France with its colonies

* See *Merchants' Magazine*, vol. xviii. p. 497, vol. xxii, p. 259, vol. xxiv. p. 264, for similar reviews of previous years.

and foreign powers, in 1851, including imports and exports, amounted in value to 2,787 millions francs, official value. This is 82 millions, or 3 per cent, more than the total of the preceding year; and 320 million, or 13 per cent, more than the average of the five previous years.

The course of the foreign Commerce of France, during the last fifteen years, is exhibited in the following table, in official values and in periods of five years.

FIRST PERIOD.				SECOND PERIOD.				THIRD PERIOD.			
Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	Million francs.				Million francs.				Million francs.		
1837	808	758	1,566	1842	1,142	940	2,082	1847	1,343	1,271	2,614
1838	937	956	1,893	1843	1,187	992	2,179	1848	862	1,153	2,015
1839	947	1,003	1,950	1844	1,193	1,147	2,340	1849	1,142	1,423	2,565
1840	1,052	1,011	2,063	1845	1,240	1,187	2,427	1850	1,174	1,531	2,705
1841	1,121	1,066	2,187	1846	1,257	1,180	2,437	1851	1,158	1,629	2,787
Total	4,865	4,794	9,659	Total	6,019	5,446	11,465	Total	5,679	7,007	12,685

Increase 2d period over 1st ..... 19 per cent.
Increase 3d period over 1st ..... 31 per cent.
Increase 3d period over 2d..... 11 per cent.

According to the rate of actual values fixed for the year 1851, the trade of France has altogether increased only to the amount of 2,614 million francs. This is 173 million francs, or 7 per cent less than the above total of 2,787 million.

Of this total amount of 2,787 million francs, the imports are 1,158 million francs, the exports 1,629 million francs. The value of inports is 16 million francs less than in 1850, and 2 million francs more than the average of five years. In exports there has been an increase of 98 million francs, or 6 per cent, compared with those of 1850, and 318 million francs, compared with the average of five years.

Taking actual values instead of official values, we have a total of imports of 1,094 million francs, instead of 1,158 million francs, and of exports of 1,520 million francs, instead of 1,629 million francs—a difference of 64 million francs and 109 million francs, or 6 and 7 per cent.

These comparisons apply to general Commerce.

The total value of special Commerce is 2,020 million francs. This is 116 million francs, or 6 per cent, more than that of 1850, and 271 million francs more than the average of the five preceding years.

In actual values the total of 2,020 million francs is reduced to 1,923 million francs, which is 97 million francs, or 5 per cent, less.

Of the total official amount of special Commerce, 781 million francs are for imports, and 1,239 million francs are for exports. The corresponding amounts of last year, and the average of five years are, imports 781 million francs and 803 million francs; exports 1,124 million francs and 947 million francs. The excess of exports is 10 and 30 per cent.

The total actual value of the special Commerce of the year is 765 million francs imports, and 1,158 million francs exports; this is 2 and 7 per cent less than the official values.

COMMERCE BY SEA AND LAND.

Of the total official value of 2,787 million francs, the proportion of goods conveyed by sea and by land was 72 and 28 per cent. This is the same proportion as in 1850, and also for the average of five years. The imports by sea, however, have fallen off, as compared with those by land, while the reverse is the case as to exports.

IMPORTS.

	Official value.	Actual value.
Commerce by sea.....francs	734,000,000	694,000,000
Commerce by land.....	424,000,000	400,000,000

EXPORTS.

Commerce by sea.....	1,265,000,000	1,180,000,000
Commerce by land.....	365,000,000	340,000,000

The proportion in official value is 63 to 37 per cent in imports, and 78 to 22 per cent in exports. The proportion was nearly the same for exports in 1850. In imports the proportion was 66 to 34 per cent—a difference of 3 per cent.

MARITIME TRADE.

Of 1,999 million francs, the official amount of trade by sea, the amount of goods under the French flag was 953 million francs, or 48 per cent. Under foreign flags 1,046 million francs, or 52 per cent.

This is the same proportion as in 1850, and for the average of five years.

Of the total of 953 million francs, the value of trade under the French flag, 271 million francs belong to privileged trade, which is an increase 22 per cent, compared with 1850, and of 12 per cent compared with the average of five years.

There has been a falling off of 5 per cent from 1850 in the trade under the French flag open to foreign competition, but on the average of five years, there has been a gain of 10 per cent.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS TOGETHER.

Of the total trade of France with her colonies and foreign powers, the share of the following countries placed in the order of their importance was 70 per cent:—England, United States, Belgium, Sardinia, Spain, the German Customs Union, Turkey, and Brazil; the share of the French colonies, 9 per cent.

IMPORTS, COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.

The imports into France from Belgium (in general Commerce) amounted to 181 million francs, which is 15 per cent more than the previous year, and 37 per cent more than the five years' average.

The value of products from that country which entered into domestic consumption, was but 101 million francs. This is a falling off of 3 per cent on the previous year, and an increase of 7 per cent on the average of five years.

Switzerland comes next to Belgium in general imports, which amounted to 134 million francs. This is within 1 million of the same amount as in 1850, and an advance of 19 million francs, or 17 per cent, on the average of five years. The special import trade from Switzerland remained the same as in 1850, and as the average of five years, the amount being 24 million francs.

The value of imports from the United States in general Commerce fell off from 137 million, in 1850, to 129 million, in 1851, a decrease of 6 and 15 per cent. The amount of special Commerce with that power was 122½ million against 123 million, in 1850, and 128 million, the average of five years.

The general trade with England increased to 109 million francs, and the

special trade to 66¼ million francs. The figures for the preceding year are 122 million and 105 million francs, general Commerce, and 69¼ million and 62 million francs, special Commerce. This is a decrease, compared with 1850, of 13 million francs and 3 million francs. An increase, compared with the average of five years, of 4 million francs, in both general and special trade.

There has been a falling off since 1850 in the general import trade from Sardinia of 2 per cent, from Turkey of 16 per cent, from Spain of 9 per cent. The imports from the Customs Union have increased 10 per cent.

In imports for home consumption, the trade with Sardinia has increased 6 per cent, but with Turkey, Spain, and the Customs Union, it has fallen off 4, 11, and 12 per cent.

The amount of Algerian products consumed is 16 million francs, instead of 5 million francs, which is an increase of 206 per cent; that of the produce of the Isle of Réunion amounted to 30 million francs, or 1 million francs less than in 1850.

The amount of imports from Guadaloupe is 31 million francs instead of 25 million francs; from Martinique 12 million francs against 11 million francs in 1850.

EXPORTS OR COUNTRY OF DESTINATION.

In the export trade, England stands first. The value of goods of all kinds exported from France to that country is 354 million francs, of which 278 million francs are for articles of French production. This is an increase of 20 per cent in general and 23 per cent in special Commerce.

The United States come next. They took of French exports of all kinds 237 million francs, and of the products of France 134 million francs. This is a falling off on the past year of 13 and 24 per cent.

The exports to Belgium, which stands third in the order of importance, amounted to 136 million francs (general Commerce), and 124 million francs (special Commerce), which is an increase of 16 and 23 per cent.

There has been an increase of 3 and 9 per cent in the official value of the exports to Switzerland: 108 million francs and 61 million francs against 105 million francs and 56 million francs.

The total exports to Sardinia increased from 82 million francs and 58 million francs, the amount in 1850, to 87 million francs and 65 million francs or 7 and 12 per cent. There was a falling off of 20 million francs and 9 million francs or 19 and 13 per cent, in exports to Spain.

Exports to the German Customs' Union amounted to 54 million francs, of which 47 million francs were French products. The results differ a little from last year.

Exports to Brazil increased 49 per cent in general and 51 per cent in special Commerce, or from 33 million francs and 22 million francs to 49 million francs and 33 million francs.

The total value of goods sent to Turkey in 1850 was 36 million francs. In 1851, it fell to 32 million francs or 10 per cent. The export of French products to that power was about the same as in 1850, 23 million francs.

To Chili, Mexico, the Low Countries, the Two Sicilies, the Hanseatic towns, Peru, the Spanish American Possessions and Austria, the export of of French products has increased in different degrees; but the exports to Prussia, Tuscany, Hayti and Egypt, have fallen off.

The general export trade to Algeria which amounted to 88 million francs

in 1850, and the special export trade, which amounted to 76 million francs, have increased 11 million francs and 18 million francs or 13 and 25 per cent All the French colonies, excepting the possessions in India, have imported more freely from the mother country. The increase in official values was 66 per cent for Martinique, 51 per cent for Guadaloupe, 7 per cent for Reunion, and 4 per cent for Cayenne.

COUNTRIES IMPORTED FROM AND EXPORTED TO.

The following is the debit and credit account of the trade of France in 1851 with the ten powers with which it has had the largest dealings, taking special Commerce as the basis of comparison, and including imports and exports :—

	Official Values.		Actual Values.	
	Debit.	Credit.	Debit.	Credit.
England.....francs	66,000,000	278,000,000	69,000,000	293,000,000
United States.....	123,000,000	134,000,000	110,000,000	145,000,000
Belgium.....	101,000,000	124,000,000	114,000,000	123,000,000
Sardinia.....	78,000,000	65,000,000	74,000,000	59,000,000
Spain.....	31,000,000	62,000,000	27,000,000	54,000,000
Switzerland.....	24,000.000	61,000,000	23,000,000	55,000,000
Customs Union.....	33,000,000	47,040,000	38,000,000	44,000,000
Turkey.....	39,000,000	23,000,000	34,000,000	20,000,000
Brazil.....	13,000,000	33,000,000	12,000,000	28,000,000
Two Sicilies.....	18,000,000	17,000,000	21,000,000	15,000,000

This table shows that the value of merchandise of French production exported to the principal powers, and particularly to England, Belgium, Spain, Switzerland and Brazil, is considerably greater than the value of products imported. The difference in favor of France as regards the United States is less, while the imports from Sardinia, Tuscany and the Two Sicilies are greater than the exports.

NATURE OF IMPORTS.

Of the aggregate of imports 1,058,000,000 francs (official value), 1,094,000,000 francs (actual value), the value of raw materials was 697 million francs (official value), 687 million francs (actual value). This is 60 per cent of the total amount given above, in official values. In 1850, the proportion of raw material was 61 per cent official value. Of this total import of raw materials 76 per cent was for the supply of the factories against 77 per cent in 1850.

The value of articles of consumption in the natural state has fallen from 189 million francs (official value), and 173 million francs (actual value), in 1850, to 181 million and 163 million francs in general trade. In special trade the results are as follows: 1850, 137 million (official value), 131 million francs (actual value); 1851, 144 million francs (official value), 129 million (actual value).

There has been an increase in the official value of the general trade in manufactured articles from 263 million francs, the amount in 1850, to 280 million francs.

But in special trade there has been a falling off of 1 million francs, from 42 million francs to 41 million francs. The actual value of these products was 219 million francs and 41 million francs, in 1850, 244 million francs and 41 million francs.

Of the articles the special import trade in which has undergone the most

fluctuation, there has been a decrease of 12 million francs or 21 per cent in wool, of 4 million francs or 4 per cent in silk, of 3 million francs in raw hides, indigo, copper, lard and tallow. Of this last amount of 3 million francs, the proportion of the first article is 7 per cent, of the second 41 per cent, of the third 21 per cent, of the fourth 78 per cent. On the other hand, the value of leaf tobacco delivered to government exceeded by 10 mil-million francs that of last year, and the value of gold dust 9 million francs.

Of articles of consumption in the natural state, coffee, table fruits, oleaginous seeds, nuts, show an increase of 1 million to 2 million francs each. Colonial sugars, a decrease of 2 million francs.

Linen and hempen fabrics and straw hats are the only articles presenting any noticeable change; and in these the diminution is 1 1-2 million francs, 13 per cent, and 1 million francs, 24 per cent.

NATURE OF EXPORTS.

We have seen that the total official value of exports of goods of every kind was 1,630 million francs, or 6 per cent more than in 1850. In this amount the proportion between natural products and manufactured articles, is about the same as in 1850, 32 per cent to 68 per cent. The actual value differs but little from the official in natural products, it is 521 million francs instead of 526 million francs: but in manufactured articles it falls from 1,104 million francs to 999 million francs.

Since 1850 there has been an increase of 9 per cent in the first and 5 per cent in the second class of articles.

In special Commerce the official value of articles in the natural state was 386 million francs, that of manufactured articles 852 million francs; this is an increase of 19 per cent and 7 per cent. Here the actual value of natural products is greater by 5 millions (391 million francs) than the total of official values, but the actual value of manufactured articles is less by 85 million francs, (767 million francs.)

Almost the whole of the increase in the export of the natural products of France, is in cereals and wines. Of this increase, 22 million francs is for the cereals (96 million to 74 million francs), 10 million francs for wines (80 million to 70 million francs), 7 million francs for brandies and spirits of wine (30 million to 23 million francs).

In manufactured articles there is an increase of 26 million francs in cotton fabrics (165 million to 139 million francs); of 6 million francs in woolen fabrics (132 million to 126 million francs); of 6 million francs in prepared skins (37 million to 31 million francs); and on the other hand a falling off of 4 million francs in silks (204 million instead of 208 million francs). This last result corresponds with the loss of 1 million francs in silk in the export of natural products.

In the aggregate, the actual rates of valuation are higher than the official as regards silks, bareges, manufactures of metals, hides prepared, tanned and dressed, hardware, toys, horses and cattle. They are lower on cotton, linen, woolen and hempen stuffs; on grains, glass, refined sugars, dyes, hair for spinning and hat making, grains and oil seeds. From these differences we have the following results in products exported:

1. Actual values higher than official values:—

Silks.....francs.	35,000,000	Prepared Skins.....francs.	14,000,000
Wines, &c.....	20,000,000	Hardware, &c.....	17,000,000
Manufactures of Metal.....	15,000,000	Horses and Cattle.....	7,000,000

2. Actual values less than official values :—

Cotton, Woolen, Linen Fabrics, &c.....francs.	128,000,000	Refined Sugars.....francs.	7,000,000
Cereals.....	6,000,000	Dyes.....	6,000,000
Glassware.....	15,000,000	Hair.....	8,000,000
		Grains and Oil Seeds.....	6,000,000

BOUNTIES.

The amount of bounties on export or for drawback, paid out of the treasury in 1851, was 26,582,412 francs. On this account, the amount in 1850 was but 25,458,572 francs. This increase of 4 per cent is almost exclusively in cotton and woolen fabrics, soaps and woolen yarn. There has been a slight decrease in refined sugars, a decrease of 9 per cent in sheet lead, 7 per cent in tanned and dressed skins, of 8 per cent in cotton thread.

Compared with the average of five years, the increase affects only plate lead, refined sulphur, cotton thread and sulphuric acid. In most other goods there is a marked increase. The total comparative value of goods exported during the last two years, with benefit of bounty, is as follows :—

Official Values.		Actual Values.	
1851.....francs.	307,395,356	1851.....francs.	191,543,880
1850.....	268,222,392	1850.....	185,929,480
	189,172,964		5,614,400

COD AND WHALE FISHERY.

The cod fishery produced 403,777 metrical quintals of fresh and dry cod of oil roes, which is 7 per cent more than in 1850, and 4 per cent more than the average of five years. This increase applies to all except the roes, in which there is a falling off of 15 per cent.

The results of the whale fishery in 1851, are but 17,477 quintals of oil and whalebone, which is 13 per cent less than the product of 1850, 20,157 quintals; and 22 per cent less than the average of five years.

The export of cod with benefit of bounty increased 38 per cent, or from 62,070 quintals the amount to which it fell in 1850, to 85,410 quintals; the greater part of this increase applies to exports to Martinique and Italy. With Spain, this branch of trade has amounted to absolutely nothing.

WAREHOUSES.

The quantity of goods warehoused in 1851 was 7,968,928 metrical quintals, of the total official value of 565 million francs, which is 3 per cent on the weight and 9 per cent in value less than last year; and 24 per cent and 13 per cent less than the average. The chief differences are, as to weight, in cereals, foreign sugars, olive oil, raw wool, lard and tallow; as to value, in foreign sugar, indigo, cereals, woolens, and olive oil.

The total actual value of goods re-warehoused was 514 million francs against 563 million francs in 1850. This is a decrease of 49 million francs; of which 20 million francs are on cottons, 14 million francs on foreign sugars, and 8 million francs on woolens.

The warehouses of Marseilles and Havre stand first in the amount of business done, as regards both the weight and value of the goods warehoused; 62 per cent in weight and 67 per cent in official value of all goods warehoused were entered here; this is 4 per cent and 2 per cent less than in 1850. The warehouse of Bordeaux is third as regards the weight, and

fourth as regards the official value of the goods entered. There has been a falling off at this place since 1850, of 5 million francs or 15 per cent in official value, and a gain of 2 per cent in weight. The business at the warehouse at Nantes has increased 19 per cent in weight and 49 per cent in value. But at Paris there has been a falling off of 8 per cent in weight and 1 per cent in official value.

TRANSIT TRADE.

The amount of transit trade in weight was 386,067 metrical quintals, which is 66,343 quintals or 21 per cent more than in 1850, when the amount was 319,724 quintals. The value of this trade at the fixed official rates established in 1826, was 264 million francs; in 1850, it was 258 million francs, increase 6 million francs or 2 per cent. Taking actual values as the basis of comparison, we have a difference in favor of 1851, of 18 million francs or 7 per cent (253 million to 235 million francs).

The transit trade in silk fabrics which, in 1850, amounted to 74 million francs (official value) increased to 78 million francs; that in cotton fabrics, amounted to only 39 million francs instead of 50 million francs; that in woolen fabrics increased from 29 million francs to 34 million francs. The transit of silk fell from 22 million to 16 million francs, and that of cotton wool from 14 million francs to 11 million francs. The transit of coffee increased 68 per cent, from 2 1-2 million francs to more than 4 million francs. Finally, the transit of wool amounted to 4 1-2 million francs, which is 38 per cent more than the previous year, and 267 per cent more than the average of five years.

Switzerland stands first among powers from which the largest amount, in value, of the transit trade through France has been derived. This amount is 98 million francs (official value), and 167 million francs (actual value). The corresponding amounts for 1850, are 99 million francs and 97 million francs. The difference between the actual and the official values is in silk and silk fabrics.

Belgium and England still stand second and third, but the results are very different from those of last year. While the transit of Belgian products across the French territory has increased 33 per cent, official value, (81 million francs to 61 million francs), the transit of goods from England has fallen off 28 per cent, (25 million to 35 million francs).

The German Customs Union, the Sardinian States, and the United States come next, with nearly similar results to those of 1850, excepting the United States, where there has been a falling off of 22 per cent, or more than 2 million francs out of 10 million francs.

The United States stands first, as in 1850, among countries to which goods in transit have been exported. Their value is 85 million francs or 32 per cent of the whole transit movement; this is $5\frac{1}{11}$ per cent more than in 1850. England, which was only third in 1850, now takes the place as second. The amount of goods she received in transit through France was 60 million francs, 13 million francs more than in 1850.

Switzerland now stands third, the value being 48 million francs. This is 500,000 francs more than in 1850.

Brazil has advanced from the seventh to the fourth place, with a total of 12 million francs instead of 4 million francs. Spain, Belgium, the Sardinian states, and the German Customs' Union come next to Brazil, and show a decrease varying from 15 per cent to 37 per cent.

The following table exhibits, in weight, for the years 1850 and 1851, the comparative importance of the import and the export transit trade, with the four principal powers with which this trade has been carried on.

COUNTRIES EXPORTING.

	1851.	1850.
Switzerland.....metrical quintals.	21,836	25,836
Belgium.....	40,068	28,852
England.....	37,279	39,428
United States.....	44,638	51,658

COUNTRIES IMPORTING.

	1851.	1850.
United States.....metrical quintals.	25,104	20,255
England.....	23,770	19,151
Switzerland.....	250,365	206,319
Belgium.....	20,683	11,941

DUTIES.

The total duties collected by the department of customs was 147,833,957 francs: of which, import duties 117,152,812 francs; export duties 3,081,141 francs; navigation duties 2,965,854 francs; incidental duties 2,822,241 francs; tax on consumption of salt 21,812,409 francs.

These receipts are 6,193,463 francs less than in 1850. The difference is confined exclusively to import duties, of which nearly 2 million francs are on foreign sugars, 3 million francs on wool, 1 1-2 million francs on olive oil, and 1 million on lard and tallow together.

The receipts at the principal custom-houses, and the proportion to the total aggregate, of the amount received at each, were as follows:—

	1850.		1851.	
Marseilles.....francs.	32,530,000	or 21 per cent.	30,677,000	or 21 per cent.
Havre.....	26,111,000	17 "	26,164,000	18 "
Paris.....	12,109,000	8 "	11,570,000	8 "
Bordeaux.....	12,047,000	8 "	11,460,000	7¾ "
Nantes.....	11,498,000	7¼ "	10,817,000	7 "
Dunkirk.....	5,929,000	4 "	6,817,000	4¾ "
Rouen.....	5,563,000	3¾ "	4,184,000	3 "
Other Custom Houses....	48,240,000	31 "	46,145,000	31 "

This comparison shows, that of the decrease of 6,193,463 francs, nearly a third is at Marseilles, and nearly a fourth at Rouen, and also that the receipts at Havre have remained the same and those of Dunkirk have increased a sixth.

SHIPPING.

The maritime trade of France with colonies and foreign powers employed steam and sail vessels in 34,636 voyages. The total tonnage employed was 4,088,000 tons. This is 8 per cent more than the voyages, and 9 per cent more than the tonnage of the preceding year. Compared with the average of five years, the increase is 12 per cent and 11 per cent.

44 per cent of the voyages and 42 per cent of the tonnage were under the French flag. There is here a falling off of from 1 to 3 per cent in the number of voyages and the tonnage from the amount of last year and from the average.

Passing to details, we notice an increase since 1850 in the tonnage of French ships, as follows:—

Of 23 per cent in the trade with the colonies.

Of 14 per cent in the trade with other French possessions out of Europe, including Algeria; and 1 per cent in the trade open to competition.

Of the total foreign maritime movement, of 11 1-2 per ct. were privileged navigation; in 1851, it exceeds 12 per cent.

The increase of 9 per cent and 11 per cent, above noticed, in the total tonnage employed, is divided as follows:—

	1850.	Ave. of Five Years.
French flag.....increase.	5 per cent.	8 per cent.
Foreign flags.....	13 "	13 "

Comparing navigation by sails with steam navigation we find, that of the former, 47 per cent of tonnage belongs to France, which is 4 per cent more than in 1850, and 9 per cent more than the average of five years. In 1850 it was 48 per cent: the average was 45 per cent.

The French steam marine has increased particularly in open trade. The tonnage was 39,000 tons against 24,000 tons in 1850, and 27,000 tons the average of five years.

The share of French shipping in the aggregate trade between Sardinia and France, although larger than that of last year, was but 51 per cent. In 1850, it was 59 per cent or 8 per cent more. There has also been a loss of 2 per cent in the trade with the Roman states. With these two exceptions, the French flag has sustained with more advantage than in 1850 the contest with the foreign flag in the trade between French ports and those of Southern Europe. Thus in 1851, it covered 68 instead of 58 per cent of the tonnage employed in the trade with Portugal, 37 instead of 35 per cent with Spain, 65 instead of 48 per cent with Tuscany, 38 instead of 29 per cent with the two Sicilies, 78 instead of 76 per cent with Turkey. But the total of French tonnage in the trade with the greater part of the rest of Europe was proportionally less than in 1850. Thus in the trade with England, the French flag covered only 24 instead of 29 per cent of the tonnage employed. In the trade with the German Union, 5 instead of 10 per cent.

The share of French shipping fell from 7 to 4 per cent, and from 20,419 tons to 15,368 tons (or 5,000 tons) in the trade between the French ports and the Atlantic ports of the United States of North America.

In the trade with the other powers of Africa, Asia, and America, the share of the French flag has not sensibly varied. The following, placed in the order of importance, are the twelve powers with which maritime intercourse has been most active in 1851: and the share of the French flag in the trade with each:—

	Total Tonnage.	Share of the French Flag.
England.....	1,657,983	24 per cent.
U. States, (Atlantic coast).	355,400	4 "
Sardinia.....	170,096	51 "
Norway.....	141,317	3 "
Two Sicilies.....	129,714	38 "
Turkey.....	129,523	78 "
Spain.....	118,420	37 "
Russia, (both seas).....	88,558	28 "
Low Countries.....	70,185	44 "
Tuscany.....	67,807	65 "
Sweden.....	64,346	6 "
Brazil.....	62,102	80 "

Art. II.—THE REGULATION OF LIFE INSURANCE.

LIFE INSURANCE, having originated in the development of the mathematical doctrine of chances, has been supposed to have some affinity to gambling. But the analogy is shallow. It may more justly be considered a method of delivering human life from the tyranny of chance. In society, as it is, a man whose productive energy is equivalent, while he lives, to the income of a handsome fortune, runs a chance of leaving his wife and children to that least tolerable species of poverty which aggravates the destitution of means by the abundance of wants. Whatever may be said of life itself, cultivated tastes are no blessing without certain physical means for their gratification. Those who, possessing them, fall into poverty, suffer pangs of which those who have never risen from it are happily ignorant. The possibility of leaving cherished and comparatively helpless dependants to such destitution in such a world, is to be avoided by any honest means. Mutual Life Insurance, to most persons, is the readiest and most effectual. It so combines accumulation and guaranty that it is equivalent, for the purpose in question, to an instantaneous creation of wealth to the individual, while the enjoyment of its present security is not purchased by an extortionate tax upon the future. When conducted upon honest and scientific principles, it is not a game at which one wins what another loses—the short liver drawing a prize, and the long liver holding a blank. On the contrary, it is an arrangement by which all the insured at once become possessed, for the benefit of their survivors, of accumulated property, and in which no one, in any contingency, can be considered a loser. For, if it be said that the long liver leaves his heirs at last less than if his premiums had been devoted to individual accumulation, it is to be replied that he has, from the first, enjoyed the certainty of leaving a large sum whenever his death should occur, and this, to a right feeling man, is a consideration of inestimable importance. Men of action, in the prime of life, find little difficulty in meeting liberally the present wants of themselves and families, but security for the future is another affair. Individual accumulation is slow; and sudden death, possible in a hundred ways. This imbitters the sweets of life for the whole spring-time, and perhaps the summer, or even the ripening autumn. An insured man, therefore, enjoys during his life a solid satisfaction, which may safely be reckoned worth the sacrifice he makes in paying his premiums. He *owns* the amount for which he is insured. He is worth it. He toils for the blessing, but does not have to wait for it till his brow is wrinkled and his heart toughened.

In Life Insurance security is everything. And it is precisely because, by the mathematical principles which govern the subject, a good degree of certainty may be obtained, that the business is justifiable and beneficial. While hardly anything seems more uncertain than individual life, aggregate life is almost as fixed in its laws as the everlasting hills. Its rate of decrement from the mass, from birth to the outer frontier of four-score-and-ten, has been the same, for aught we know, in all ages and countries. The difference, to say the least, is confined to narrow limits, and the effects of unhealthy climate and sweeping pestilence do not disturb it by any means so much as might be supposed. If there is any change in general longevity it is very slow and not very considerable. Taking ten thousand persons alive of any given age, the number of those who will die each year till there

are no more, can be predicted from experience with a remarkable approach to precision. The question on which this article proposes to submit a thought or two is, how the law of the average decrement of life, as developed by observation thus far, is to be applied to the regulation of Life Insurance, or in other words, how the public is to be satisfied that any Life Insurance company is reasonably safe.

First, however, it deserves to be settled, what expression of the law we will accept as the highest authority. Observations, more or less extensive, on the mass of the population in various localities, as at Northampton, Chester, and Carlisle, in England, were the foundation of the first rates of Life Insurance. The rates charged in this country are generally conformed to the mortality at the latter place. But population taken as it rises may not be an exactly fair representation of the body of insured lives. As those who feel their tenure of life most doubtful will naturally most seek insurance, the company must, of course, guard itself by selecting the best of those who apply. Whether the result will be a body of insured lives above or below the average longevity is a question. As experience is always better than theory, the leading English companies, some fourteen years ago, turned their attention to a practical investigation of this question. They very justly deemed that the actual experience of the past would be the best guide for the future. Seventeen of the oldest offices united their experience, reaching back, in a number of cases, for several generations. The particulars of more than 80,000 policies, that had been terminated by death, were contributed to a common stock, and after rejecting those that did not answer general conditions, such as bad lives, taken at extra rates, 62,535 were taken as the basis of a table of rates. The result was, as might have been expected, favorable to life on the whole, but more so on the earlier than the later ages. That is, the mortality of selected insured lives is rather less for some years than that of the Carlisle table, but rather greater afterwards. But the decrement, as given by this combined experience of insured lives, is more uniform, and exhibits fewer anomalies than the Carlisle, or any other table, based on the mass of the population. This extensive average of lives actually insured—the very class of lives that are to be provided for—undoubtedly furnishes the most authoritative expression, within the present boundaries of science, of the law of mortality, as applicable to Life Insurance.

The values of life annuities and premiums of insurance deduced from this table of mortality, may be found in the small work of Mr. Jenkyn Jones. But, as he gives the annuities only to three places of decimals, and the last is not always the nearest figure, the writer has recomputed, with some care, the annuities and premiums, carrying them two places further. The result, together with the logarithms most convenient in practice, may be found at the close of these remarks.

Life risks differ obviously from those of fire and marine disaster, by extending over a far longer duration of time, and by terminating in certain loss. The business also differs from fire and marine insurance, in that accumulation by interest playing a more important part in it, a company in its earlier years is sure to have on hand a considerable amount of funds beyond current losses, and with these it can make a good show of prosperity, whether or not it is so husbanding them as to be able to pay its larger ultimate losses. As the conformity of the premium to the requirement of the law of mortality is no more than a right outset, and does not secure a right progress afterwards, it is important to have some gauge or line by which the

accumulation may be tested afterwards, and how this is to be had, may be best illustrated by an example. The average age at which insurance is effected is probably somewhere between 37 and 38, at which age the expectation or average of future life is 29 years. For the sake of having a medium example, let us suppose that a company insures for life 5,000 persons at this mean age, each paying $30 per annum for a policy of $1,000. Taken one with another, each will pay twenty-nine premiums of $30, amounting to $870, and will receive by his heirs $1,000. The $130 and its expenses the company is to provide for by the interest. And more than this it may easily do, for the premium charged is about $6 higher than that which would be sufficient to amount to the $1,000, at compound interest at 3 per cent, taking the losses one with another as they occur in the table. This excess is designed to meet necessary expenses and extraordinary mortality, and under the mutual system of insurance it returns, so far and so fast as it is not needed for these purposes, to those who have paid it. How far and how fast it may return is to be decided. Pursuing our example, we see that the company will the first year receive from its 5,000 insurees $150,000, and we will suppose that this sum is increased by interest to $156,000. According to the law of mortality above referred to, it may expect to lose the first year $49,000 by 49 deaths. Suppose it should so lose, it will still have $107,000 left; or, what is quite probable, it may experience no more than 30 losses, amounting to $30,000, and leaving $126,000, (to say nothing of more interest in this case.) But this large amount is not entirely profit or surplus. If not the whole, the greater portion of it must be retained productively invested for the future, to meet engagements certain in amount and, in the aggregate, certain in time. If the company has had to pay only $30,000 for losses, then the other $19,000, which it might have paid according to the table, it has still to pay. It has not gained the principal, but only the opportunity of acquiring more interest. The favorable contingency is doubtless beneficial to the company, and will enable it to return more than it otherwise would. But how much more? is the question. Here a vital practical rule, founded on the law of mortality, comes in, and it is, *that a company must always keep its available assets equal to its* MATURED *liabilities.* The matured liability on each policy is its value, according to the law of mortality, and such a rate of interest as may be considered permanent and certain, or it is the difference between the single premium, which the holder of the policy would have to pay to insure the same amount at his present age, and the present worth of what he will pay, at the aforesaid rate of interest in both cases, having entered into the engagement at an earlier age. This difference, or value of the policy, the company is bound to hold in trust, productively invested. If it be returned, or otherwise expended, it must be made good by a robbery of the future, or the company will, some time or other, fail to meet its engagements. The aggregate of these values or differences, calculated to any given time, is the matured liability of the company at that time, or it is just what it would have to pay in equity to be released from its engagements.

Let us suppose, which will not be far from the fact, assuming 3 per cent as the permanent rate of interest, that each of the policies in our example has a value at the close of the first year, and before the second premium is paid, of $15. In case, then, 30 policies have expired by death, $74,550 will be the matured liability of the company, and reserving this, it will have $51,450, minus its expenses, to return. If it has had the medium loss of

$49,000, then it must reserve $74,265, and will have $32,735, minus expenses, to return. If, again, the losses have amounted to 60, it will have to reserve $74,100, and, supposing the extra losses not to have diminished the income from interest, it will have only $21,900, minus expenses, to return. It is quite plain, so far as this example represents the truth, that a company must be very fortunate indeed to be able, after paying 10 per cent commissions to agents, office rent, salaries, printing bills, postage, &c., to return 33 per cent of its premiums. It is true that companies do add to the surplus to be divided something from the profits of lapsed policies and temporary assurance, but not often a considerable per centage of the receipts by premiums.

At all events, our example makes it perfectly clear that a company can never know how much it has a right to return, without first accurately ascertaining the values of all its policies to a certain day. As policies are dated all the working days of the year, and change their value from day to day, and as the ages of the insured are various, calculating all the policies of an extensive company to a given day requires a good deal of arithmetical labor. But it must be done, or a company cannot be sure of its solvency any more than a merchant who neglects to balance his books. A navigator might as safely be ignorant of his latitude and longitude in mid-ocean. It is a business in which all the accuracy which the nature of the case admits should be secured at whatever cost.

By some companies in this country, policies are carefully estimated, and assets balanced against matured liabilities yearly. By others, there is reason to believe that the liabilities have been rudely and *lumpingly* guessed at, and by *some* others still, it is probable no such estimation has been made or attempted in one way or another. As the principal executive officer of one company lately expressed to the writer of this article his doubt as to the possibility of "fixing a value to an uncertainty," meaning by an "uncertainty" a life policy, it is pretty certain that *that* company gets on without calculating its policies. In this state of things, it is not without good reason that several State Legislatures have interested themselves to guard their constituents against the mismanagement of Life Insurance offices. New York has required of each company doing business in that State, wherever chartered, to deposit $100,000 with the State Controller, for the benefit of the insured in that State. This safe-guard is of very doubtful utility, and surely very awkward. The sum held may be too much or too little, and requiring it tends to discourage the business and confine it to narrow limits, whereas its safety lies in expanding over a broad surface. Massachusetts has for several years required of insurance companies chartered in other States, and doing business within her limits, a statement of their affairs, to be sworn to, and lodged with the Secretary of State, but unfortunately *such* a statement as was conclusive of nothing in the case of Life Insurance companies! It got merely a sort of puff advertisement, the figures of which indeed might all be true enough, and yet the company be worthless. Her last Legislature has passed a more stringent enactment, and in it required a return of the real liability of the company as well as its assets. It is curious, however, to observe, and it argues the imperfect acquaintance with this subject, which prevails that this act not only requires a return of the aggregate value of the policies on the first of July of each year, but also the *present value of the future premiums* at the same date! This latter return, having nothing to balance against it, is of no significance whatever to the public.

The father of the act, by attempting to show a little more knowledge than he possessed, imposed a quite needless labor on the companies. This act, however, hits the nail on the head, notwithstanding. It is an "Assembly's shorter catechism," which no company can honestly answer without informing the public whether it has been safely and correctly managed up to the date of the return.

Such a balance of its assets against its matured liability, as estimated by a mathematician known to be competent and trustworthy, every Life Insurance company should feel required, by a regard for its own credit, to make annually. And the insured should no more allow the directors to go on from year to year without reporting this balance than the stockholders of a railroad would allow their directors to report their receipts without reporting their running expenses.

E. W.

VALUES OF LIFE ANNUITIES, AND SINGLE AND ANNUAL PREMIUMS OF ASSURANCE, FOR ONE DOLLAR, ON SINGLE LIVES, BY THE "COMBINED EXPERIENCE" RATE OF MORTALITY, AT 8 PER CENT INTEREST.

Age.	Living at each age.	Value of annuity.	Logarithm of annuity.	Logarithm of 1+ annuity.	Annual premium.	Logarithm of annual prem.	Single premium.
10 .	100,000	23.35587	1.3683960	1.3866035	.0119317	-2.0767022	.2906063
11 .	99,324	23.22027	.3658673	.3841779	.0121616	.0849907	.2945573
12 .	98,650	23.08027	.3632411	.3816694	.0124008	.0934497	.2986200
13 .	97,978	22.93573	.3605127	.3790467	.0126523	.1021695	.3028430
14 .	97,307	22.78671	.3576816	.3763344	.0129141	.1110642	.3071833
15 .	96,636	22.63330	.3547479	.3735244	.0131870	.1201460	.3116524
16 .	95,965	22.47528	.3517052	.3706108	.0134718	.1294256	.3162541
17 .	95,293	22.31279	.3485539	.3675943	.0137687	.1388929	.3209869
18 .	94,620	22.14564	.3452883	.3644692	.0140785	.1485564	.3258553
19 .	93,945	21.97390	.3419072	.3612347	.0144015	.1584077	.3308575
20 .	93,268	21.79741	.3384048	.3578855	.0147384	.1684503	.3359980
21 .	92,588	21.61621	.3347796	.3544198	.0150899	.1786863	.3412756
22 .	91,905	21.43018	.3310256	.3508327	.0154566	.1891139	.3466941
23 .	91,219	21.23907	.3271355	.3471166	.0158398	.1997497	.3522618
24 .	90,529	21.04298	.3231072	.3432704	.0162397	.2105780	.3579715
25 .	89,835	20.84170	.3189332	.3392864	.0166578	.2216177	.3638343
26 .	89,137	20.63506	.3146057	.3351581	.0170951	.2328716	.3698527
27 .	88,434	20.42307	.3101210	.3308817	.0175525	.2443390	.3760273
28 .	87,726	20.20553	.3054703	.3264491	.0180313	.2560270	.3823634
29 .	87,012	19.98247	.3006491	.3218566	.0185326	.2679363	.3888603
30 .	86,292	19.75413	.2956579	.3171045	.0190570	2800545	.3955110
31 .	85,565	19.51913	.2904605	.3121589	.0196088	.2924509	.4023557
32 .	84,831	19.27869	.2850775	.3070398	.0201867	.3050632	.4093589
33 .	84,089	19.03222	.2794905	.3017291	.0207934	.3179255	.4165374
34 .	83,339	18.77965	.2736875	.2962186	.0214308	.3310383	.4238939
35 .	82,581	18.52084	.2676607	.2904985	.0221011	.3444138	.4314320
36 .	81,814	18.25505	.2613830	.2845446	.0228082	.3580910	.4391731
37 .	81,038	17.98275	.2548561	.2783591	.0235532	.3720499	.4471046
38 .	80,253	17.70340	.2480568	.2719206	.0243400	.3863206	.4552409
39 .	79,458	17.41695	.2409722	.2652177	.0251716	.4009108	.4635842
40 .	78,653	17.12307	.2335816	.2582318	.0260521	.4158427	.4721437
41 .	77,838	16.82142	.2258627	.2509428	.0269861	.4311401	.4809296
42 .	77,012	16.51190	.2177970	.2433332	.0279778	.4468136	.4899450
43 .	76,173	16.19458	.2093698	.2353986	.0290307	.4628575	.4991791
44 .	75,316	15.87022	.2005830	.2271207	.0301498	.4792844	.5086845
45 .	74,435	15.53980	.1914454	.2185302	.0313340	.4960158	.5182584
46 .	73,526	15.20388	.1819544	.2096190	.0325874	.5130497	.5280425
47 .	72,582	14.86367	.1721261	.2004037	.0339109	.5303392	.5379513
48 .	71,601	14.51933	.1619466	.1908637	.0353109	.5479087	.5479904
49 .	70,580	14.17125	.1514080	.1810213	.0367880	.5657062	.5581191
50 .	69,517	13.81958	.1404948	.1708362	.0383520	.5837880	.5683616
51 .	68,409	13.46472	.1291974	.1603090	.0400077	.6021486	.5786986

Age.	Living at each age.	Value of annuity.	Logarithm of annuity.	Logarithm of 1+ annuity.	Annual premium.	Logarithm of annual prem.	Single premium.
52 .	67,253	13.10705	.1175048	.1494362	.0417603	.6207634	.5891152
53 .	66,046	12.74668	.1054071	.1381978	.0436186	.6396717	.5996115
54 .	64,785	12.38494	.0928938	.1266164	.0455846	.6588182	.6101476
55 .	63,469	12.02099	.0799401	.1146437	.0476729	.6782716	.6207482
56 .	62,094	11.65580	.0665419	.1022896	.0498890	.6980048	.6313846
57 .	60,658	11.28968	.0526816	.0895405	.0522429	.7180272	.6420484
58 .	59,161	10.92261	.0383266	.0763713	.0547480	.7383683	.6527397
59 .	57,600	10.55521	.0234664	.0627778	.0574148	.7590239	.6634406
60 .	55,973	10.18785	.0080827	.0487466	.0602565	.7800039	.6741403
61 .	54,275	9.82178	0.9921902	.0342987	.0632800	.8012665	.6848026
62 .	52,505	9.45747	.9757749	.0194266	.0664992	.8228164	.6954136
63 .	50,661	9.09576	.9588391	.0041890	.0699253	.8446843	.7059489
64 .	48,744	8.73708	.9413665	0.9884287	.0735740	.8667244	.7163958
65 .	46,754	8.38226	.9233610	.9723074	.0774579	.8890657	.7267304
66 .	44,693	8.03184	.9048148	.9557762	.0815932	.9116539	.7369368
67 .	42,565	7.68639	.8857222	.9388393	.0859964	.9344803	.7469984
68 .	40,374	7.34661	.8660870	.9215101	.0906829	.9575254	.7568949
69 .	38,128	7.01276	.8458888	.9037821	.0956748	.9807976	.7666187
70 .	35,837	6.68490	.8250949	.8856382	.1009991	−1.0043175	.7761680
71 .	33,510	6.36359	.8037023	.8670896	.1066770	.0280707	.7855266
72 .	31,159	6.04905	.7816869	.8481306	.1127368	.0520657	.7946879
73 .	28,797	5.74156	.7590299	.8287604	.1192074	.0763032	.8036440
74 .	26,439	5.44124	.7356977	.8089695	.1261234	.1007957	.8123911
75 .	24,100	5.14841	.7116733	.7887628	.1335174	.1255378	.8209202
76 .	21,797	4.86315	.6869174	.7681298	.1414310	.1505445	.8292292
77 .	19,548	4.58533	.6613707	.7470489	.1499142	.1758426	.8373206
78 .	17,369	4.31540	.6350207	.7255357	.1590065	.2014148	.8451827
79 .	15,277	4.05353	.6078332	.7035947	.1687553	.2272574	.8528099
80 .	13,290	3.79936	.5797102	.6811831	.1792350	.2534228	.8602129
81 .	11,424	3.55255	.5505397	.6582544	.1905311	.2799659	.8674047
82 .	9,694	3.31213	.5201078	.6346921	.2027776	.3070199	.8744040
83 .	8,112	3.07681	.4881002	.6103200	.2161639	.3347831	.8812581
84 .	6,685	2.84560	.4541736	.5849639	.2309113	.3634451	.8879923
85 .	5,417	2.61704	.4178104	.5583533	.2473429	.3932994	.8946494
86 .	4,306	2.39104	.3785863	.5303751	.2657399	.4244567	.9012223
87 .	3,348	2.16747	.3359529	.5007123	.2865833	.4572509	.9077437
88 .	2,537	1.94615	.2891761	.4692547	.3103000	.4917818	.9141899
89 .	1,864	1.72827	.2376124	.4358862	.3374124	.5281610	.9205360
90 .	1,319	1.51565	.1806001	.4006508	.3683848	.5663016	.9267286
91 .	892	1.30875	.1168572	.3633772	.4040083	.6063903	.9327548
92 .	570	1.10925	.0450306	.3241287	.4449752	.6483358	.9385655
93 .	339	.92084	−1.9641852	.2834916	.4914788	.6915047	.9440527
94 .	184	.74781	.8737914	.2424942	.5430184	.7348145	.9490929
95 .	89	.59242	.7726276	.2020568	.5988500	.7773181	.9536190
96 .	37	.46775	.6700174	.1666533	.6521868	.8143719	.9572499
97 .	13	.37124	.5696516	.1371125	.7001424	.8451864	.9600610
98 .	4	.24272	.3851026	.0943726	.7755616	.8896163	.9638044
99 .	1	.00000	.0000000	.0000000	.8708738	.9871632	.9708738

Art. III.—TOBACCO: AND THE TOBACCO TRADE.

It is said that the name Tobacco was given by the Spaniards to the plant, because it was first observed by them at Tabasco or Tabaco, a province of Yucatan in Mexico. In 1560, Nicot, the French ambassador to Portugal, having received some tobacco from a Flemish merchant, showed it, on his arrival in Lisbon, to the grand prior, and on his return into France, to Catherine of Medicis, whence it has been called Nicotiana by the botanists. Ad-

miral Sir Francis Drake having, on his way home from the Spanish Main, in 1586, touched at Virginia, and brought away some forlorn colonists, is reported to have first imported tobacco into England. But according to Lobel, this plant was cultivated in Britain before the year 1570; and was consumed by smoking in pipes by Sir Walter Raleigh and companions so early as the year 1584. The first time Sir Walter Raleigh smoked, as reported, it was in private; he had called his servant for a jug of water; when the man brought it in, he saw the smoke coming out of his master's mouth, and naturally supposing he was on fire, as naturally threw the jug of water over him, to put it out. Whether this anecdote be true or not is immaterial.

The introduction and use of tobacco form a singular chapter in the history of mankind; and it may well excite astonishment that the discovery in America of a nauseous and poisonous weed, of an acrid taste and disagreeable odor, in short, whose only properties are deleterious, should have had so great an influence on the social condition of all nations; that it should have become an article of extensive Commerce; and that its culture should have spread more rapidly than that of the most useful plants. At the time of the discovery of America, tobacco was in frequent use among the Indians, and the practice of smoking was common to almost all the tribes; and by it they pretended to cure a great variety of diseases.

Its introduction into the Eastern Continent was everywhere marked with ridicule and persecution. A book was written against it even by the king of Great Britain, James I., and perhaps a hundred others of the same character were published in various languages. Pope Urban VIII. excommunicated all who took tobacco in churches, and the empress Elizabeth also prohibited the use of it in churches. In Transylvania, an ordinance was published, in 1689, threatening those who should plant tobacco with the confistion of their estates. The Grand Duke of Moscow and the king of Persia forbade its use under penalty of the loss of the nose, or even of death.

At present, the aspect of affairs is so much altered, that all the sovereigns of Europe, and most of those of other parts of the world, derive a considerable part of their revenues from tobacco. Having been introduced into England by Raleigh and other young men of fashion, its use rapidly spread in that country, as it previously had done among the Portuguese, Spaniards, and French. During the reign of George III., the practice of smoking, which had previously been exceedingly prevalent, went out of fashion, and was nearly superseded, among the higher and middle classes, by that of snuff-taking. Latterly, however, smoking has been revived in that country. The practice of smoking has become so general, especially in Holland and Germany, that it constitutes a daily luxury with nearly all the peasantry of those countries, as well as with the more indolent and wealthy classes.

Tobacco is a powerful narcotic, and also a strong stimulant, and taken internally, even in small doses, it proves powerfully emetic and cathartic. The oil is celebrated for its extreme virulence, and when applied to a wound, is said, by Redi, to be as fatal as the poison of a viper. The decoction, powder, and smoke are used in agriculture to destroy insects. The article is not only used for smoking, but for snuff. In the manufacture of the latter, various matters are added for giving it an agreeable scent; and hence the numerous varieties of snuff.

Virginia has been famous for the successful cultivation of the tobacco plant. It became the staple of that province, but it is now giving way to a

much wider cultivation of wheat. The tobacco plant, when full grown, will rise to six feet in hight. The stem is pretty straight, rather hairy and clammy. The leaves are of considerable length, of a yellow green; those nearest the ground are the largest, but they make the coarsest tobacco. As the plants grow they require much attention, to keep the ground between the rows clear from weeds, and to pull off all the lowest and coarsest leaves from the plant itself, in order to feed more fully the upper ones. The laborious work is done by negroes. When the leaves turn brown the plant is ripe. The plants, as they ripen, are cut down, and laid in a heap to heat, after which they are hung up separately to dry, in houses built on purpose. The tobacco of Cuba, for smoking, is the best raised. Recently, the exportation of cigars from that island is said to have amounted to 200,000 boxes a year.

It is stated that as early as 1650, the fields, gardens, streets, and public squares of Jamestown, in Virginia, were planted with tobacco, which was used as a currency in that as well as many other of the Southern States. As a sample of this, in 1669, by enactment in Virginia, heinous social crimes were punished by a fine of from five hundred to one thousand pounds of tobacco. For the thirty years preceding 1775, the annual export of tobacco from the United States was 40,000,000 pounds. In the next seven years, which embraced the Revolutionary War, the entire export was 86,000,000 pounds, but 34,000,000 of this was captured by the British. In the three succeeding years the export was about 90,000,000 pounds. The whole crop of tobacco in the United States in 1847 was estimated at a little over 220,000,000 pounds, which, at the low price of five cents the pound, amounts to the sum of $11,000,000.

The use of tobacco has vastly increased in France since the last Duke of Orleans set the fashion of smoking in the streets, in order to lend a hand to government sales. Tobacco, a filthy weed, the vestibule of the drunkard's home, assaults one at every step here—not in the form of chewing, but in puffing bad cigars. Its sale is a rigid monopoly, and to retail it, is a privilege which requires a friend at court. Throughout France the little tobacco shops all look alike—boxes on the counter with separate lids, marked one sou and upwards—prices fixed for the cigars by the government, to which must be added snuff, but never chewing tobacco. The profit the government derives from this borders on a hundred million francs. An attempt has been made to raise tobacco in Algiers, which may not be uninteresting, in the following details, to our growers:—In 1851, the number of planters was only 137, whereas, in 1852, it was 1,073. The number of *hectares* (a *hectare* is about 2¾ acres) under the tobacco plant was 446 in 1851, and 1,095 in 1852. The government has announced that it will purchase this year 720,000 kilograms of this tobacco, whereas the quantity last year was only 303,000. The total of the present year's crop is estimated at 1,780,000 kilograms, of which 700,000 have been grown by the natives, and the rest by Europeans.

There is a considerable increase in the product of Connecticut seed leaf, but in most of the other States, particularly Virginia and Louisiana, there was a marked decline, corresponding with the exports of the following years, thus testing in some degree the accuracy of the census reports.

The census returns of the United States for 1840 and 1850 show in the latter period a considerable falling off in the production, as follows:—

POUNDS OF TOBACCO RAISED IN THE UNITED STATES PER CENSUS.

	1840.	1850.		1840.	1850.
Maine .....lbs.	30	....	Mississippi..lbs.	83,471	48,349
New Hampshire	115	50	Louisiana	119,824	23,922
Vermont.....	585	....	Texas.....	.....	60,770
Massachusetts..	64,955	119,306	Arkansas.....	184,439	224,164
Rhode Island...	317	....	Tennessee.....	29,550,432	20,144,380
Connecticut....	471,657	1,383,932	Kentucky	53,436,909	55,765,259
New York	744	70,222	Ohio.....	5,942,275	10,480,967
New Jersey ...	1,922	....	Michigan.....	1,602	2,225
Pennsylvania...	325,018	857,619	Indiana.....	1,820,806	1,035,146
Delaware	272	....	Illinois.....	564,826	844,129
Maryland	24,816,012	21,199,281	Missouri	9,067,913	17,038,364
D. of Columbia.	55,550	15,000	Iowa.....	8,076	2,012
Virginia	75,347,106	56,516,492	Wisconsin.....	115	768
N. Carolina....	16,772,359	12,058,147	California	....	1,000
S. Carolina....	51,519	73,235	Minnesota.....	....	....
Georgia.....	162,894	420,123	Oregon.....	....	325
Florida	75,274	982,584	Utah.....	....	....
Alabama.....	273,302	163,605	New Mexico....	....	1,118
Total.....				219,163,319	199,532,494

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF HOGSHEADS OF TOBACCO EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES FROM 1790 TO 1835, INCLUSIVE, AND THE AVERAGE PRICE PER POUND, AND GROSS VALUE FROM 1802 TO 1835, INCLUSIVE; ALSO THE NUMBER OF POUNDS OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO AND SNUFF EXPORTED FROM 1791 TO 1835, INCLUSIVE, AND GROSS VALUE FROM 1817 TO 1835, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	No. hhds. leaf tobacco.	Average price per lb.	Total value.	Manufactured tobacco, lbs.	Snuff, lbs.	Value of manufac'd and snuff.
1790.....	118,460			.....		
1791.....	101,272			81,122		
1792.....	112,428			117,874		
1793*.....	59,947	Not ascertained.	Unascertained.	137,784	Snuff and manufactured tobacco included.	Unascertained.
1794.....	72,958			19,370		
1795.....	61,050			20,263		
1796.....	69,018			29,181		
1797.....	58,167			12,805		
1798.....	68,567			142,269		
1799.....	96,070			406,076		
1800.....	78,686			457,713		
1801.....	103,758			472,282		
1802.....	77,721	6¼	$6,220,000	233,591		
1803.....	86,291	6	6,230,000	152,415		
1804.....	83,341	5½	6,000,000	298,139		
1805.....	71,251	7⅝	6,341,000	428,460		
1806.....	83,186	6½	6,572,000	381,733		
1807†.....	62,236	7½	5,476,000	274,952		
1808‡.....	9,576	7½	838,000	36,332		
1809.....	53,921	5⅞	3,774,000	350,835		
1810§.....	84,134	5	5,048,000	529,285		
1811.....	35,828	5	2,150,000	752,553		
1812‖.....	26,094	3	1,514,000	588,618		
1813.....	5,314	5	319,000	283,512		
1814.....	3,125	6½	232,000	79,377		
1815.....	35,337	8	3,235,000	1,034,045		
1816.....	69,241	15½	12,809,000	576,246		
1817.....	62,365	12½	9,230,000	1,115,874	5,080	$281,509
1818.....	84,337	10	10,241,341	1,486,240	5,513	373,875
1819.....	69,427	10½	8,874,167	926,833	13,710	237,192

* French Revolution. † Berlin and Milan decrees. ‡ Embargo. § Regie in France decreed. ‖ War with Great Britain.

Years.	[No. hhds. leaf tobacco.	Average price per lb.	Total value.	Manufactured tobacco, lbs.	Snuff, lbs.	Value of manufac'd and snuff.
1820.....	83,940	8	8,188,188	593,358	4,996	149,589
1821.....	66,858	7½	5,798,045	1,332,949	44,552	149,083
1822.....	83,169	6½	6,380,020	1,414,424	44,602	157,182
1823.....	99,009	5⅝	6,437,627	1,987,507	36,684	154,955
1824.....	77,883	5½	5,059,355	2,477,990	45,174	203,789
1825*.....	75,984	6½	5,287,976	1,871,368	53,920	172,353
1826.....	64,098	6¾	5,347,208	2,179,774	61,801	210,134
1827.....	100,025	5¾	6,316,146	2,730,255	45,812	239,024
1828.....	96,278	4¾	5,480,707	2,637,411	35,655	210,747
1829.....	77,131	5¾	5,185,370	2,619,399	19,509	202,396
1830.....	83,810	5½	5,833,112	3,199,151	29,425	246,747
1831.....	86,718	4¾	4,892,388	3,639,856	27,967	292,475
1832.....	106,806	4½	5,999,769	3,456,071	31,175	295.771
1833.....	83,153	6¾	5,755,968	3,790,310	13,453	288,978
1834.....	87,979	6½	6,595,305	3,956,579	57,826	328,409
1835.....	94,353	7½	8,250,577	3,817,854	36,471	357,611
1836.....	109,442	7½	10,058,640	3,246,675	46,018	435,464
1837.....	100,232	4½	5,765,647	3,615,591	40,883	427,836
1838.....	100,593	6½	7,392,029	5,008,147	75,083	577,420
1839.....	78,995	10½	9,832,943	4,214,943	42,467	616,212
1840.....	119,484	6¾	9,883,657	6,787,165	37,132	813,671
1841.....	147,828	7	12,576,703	7,503,644	68,553	873,877
1842.....	158,710	4½	9,540,755	4,434,214	42,668	525,490
1843.....	94,454	4½	4,650,979	3,404,252	20,455	278,819
1844.....	163,042	4⅝	8,397,255	6,046,878	28,668	536,600
1845.....	147,168	4½	7,469,819	5,312,971	44,399	538,498
1846.....	147,998	4¾	8,478,270	6,854,856	52,458	695,914
1847.....	135,762	4½	7,242,086	7,844,592	37,051	658,950
1848.....	130,665	4¾	7,551,122	6,698,507	36,192	568,435
1849.....	101,521	4½	5,840,247	7,159,397	49,888	613,044
1850.....	145,729	5⅝	9,951,023	5,918,583	44,690	648,332
1851.....	95,945	8	9,219,251	7,235,358	37,422	1,143,547

The tobacco trade, which for some years was under a depression, has, within the last two, somewhat improved, as far as an increased average price per hhd. goes. In order to observe the operation of this trade through a series of years, we have compiled from official sources the number of hhds. and export value sent out of the United States annually. We have divided the last twenty-four years into three periods of seven years each, and the last ten years. This division embraces the operation of each tariff. The seven years up to 1828, were of comparative low duties; 1828 and up to 1834, was the period of the highest. The reductions under the compromise began in 1834, and continued down to 1841, inclusive. In 1842, the duties upon articles before free, were levied, and in 1843 the tariff of 1842 began its operation, and in 1847, the present tariff. The result is as follows:—

EXPORT OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhd.	Value of snuff and manufactured.	Total value of tobacco exported.
1828.....	96,271	$5,296,960	$54 73	$210,747	$5,480,707
1829.....	77,141	4,982,974	64 60	202,396	5,185,370
1830.....	83,810	5,586,365	66 65	246,748	5,833,112
1831.....	86,718	4,892,388	56 40	202,745	5,184,868
1832.....	106,806	5,999,769	56 18	295,771	6,295,540
1833.....	83,153	5,755,968	69 29	288,978	6,043,991
1834.....	87,979	6,595,305	74 96	328,408	6,423,714
Average 7 years....	85,982	$5,583,247	$63 25	$265,061	$5,849,749

* Duty in England lowered from 4s. to 3s. per lb.]

Years.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhds.	Value of snuff and manufactured.	Total value of tobacco exported.
1835.....	94,853	$3,250,577	$37 01	$357,611	$8,608,188
1836.....	109,442	10,058,640	91 54	435,464	10,494,104
1837.....	100,232	5,765,647	57 82	427,836	6,223,483
1838.....	100,593	7,392,029	73 48	577,420	7,969,449
1839.....	78,995	9,832,943	124 47	616,212	10,449,155
1840.....	119,484	9,883,657	81 05	813,671	10,697,628
1841.....	147,828	12,576,703	85 09	873,877	13,450,570
Average 7 years....	107,275	$9,112,928	$85 92	$586,013	$9,698,941
1842.....	$158,710	$9,540,755	$60 11	$525,490	$10,066,245
1843.....	94,454	4,650,979	49 24	278,819	5,929,298
1844.....	163,042	8,397,255	51 53	536,600	8,933,855
1845.....	147,168	7,469,819	50 75	530,498	8,008,317
1846.....	147,998	8,478,270	57 25	695,954	9,174,184
1847.....	135,762	7,242,086	53 40	658,950	7,901,036
1848.....	130,665	7,551,122	57 75	568,435	8,119,557
1849.....	101,521	5,840,207	52 75	613,044	6,453,251
1850.....	145,729	9,951,023	68 25	648,832	10,599,855
1851.....	95,945	9,219,251	96 00	1,143,547	10,362,798
Average 10 years...	132,010	$7,884,076	$59 25	$620,006	$8,454,082

RECAPITULATION.

Average 7 years ending—					
1827.....	81,003	$5,864,277	$73 53	$183,788	$6,084,073
1834.....	85,892	5,583,247	63 25	265,061	5,849,749
1841.....	107,275	9,112,928	85 92	586,013	9,638,941
1847, 6 years	141,189	6,629,866	54 04	529,065	8,335,689
1841-51, 10 years.....	132,060	7,884,076	59 25	620,006	8,454,682

The destination of the tobacco exported from the United States, in the last few years, has been as follows:—

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Russia.....hhds.	80	613	1,856
Sweden.....	1,738	1,542	1,408
Hanse Towns.....	21,933	46,399	22,506
Holland.....	19,653	22,683	11,871
Belgium.....	3,404	4,232	523
Great Britain.....	21,857	30,926	23,698
" colonies.....	7,995	8,657	2,681
France.....	14,081	15,552	10,101
Spain.....	1,307	5,299	8,953
Portugal.....	584	805	550
Italy and Trieste.....	4,948	9,814	7,651
Africa.....	1,582	1,746	2,197
Elsewhere.....	2,409	3,363	1,953
Total hhds.....	101,521	145,729	95,945
Total value.....	$5,304,207	$9,951,023	$9,219,251

As compared with the year 1849, the tobacco trade has been very good. That is to say, for 5,000 hhds. less tobacco, the United States apparently get $3,400,000 more money. This return, however, does not show the losses sustained by consignors to foreign markets, growing out of the machinery of advances, forced sales, slaughtering, buying in, and reclamations; by which process it has been said that American tobacco may be sent from here and come back for the manufacture of cigars, paying duty, and under-

selling the home-made article. It is known that German cigar-makers in New York can sell cigars, made from American tobacco imported from Germany, cheaper than to make them from the tobacco before it has been sent abroad. A good deal is to be allowed to adulteration, which, as seen in the above table, affects, in connection with smuggling, the manufactured tobacco which pays duty in Great Britain.

The change in the duties on general articles of consumption seems in England to have promoted the consumption of tobacco, on the general principles which prompted the change of policy under Sir Robert Peel's administration in 1842, although the duty charged upon tobacco has remained the same. The English official returns show that the consumption fell year by year until 1842, which was the year of the greatest depression, and when the financial crisis of the government brought Sir Robert Peel into power. From that year, when the duties were removed on many articles, in order to promote their consumption, as well as that of those on which the tax was untouched, the consumption of leaf tobacco has continued steadily to increase.

TOBACCO ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Leaf, lbs.	Manufactured, lbs.	Years.	Leaf, lbs.	Manufactured, lbs.
1838.....	23,356,246	190,148	1845.....	26,076,311	245,940
1839.....	22,971,406	196,304	1846.....	26,737,001	264,707
1840.....	22,902,398	193,912	1847.....	26,220,240	208,913
1841.....	22,094,772	213,613	1848.....	27,061,480	205,927
1842.....	22,013,146	225,202	1849.....	27,350,120	201,450
1843.....	22,891,517	263,840	1850.....	27,538,104	196,681
1844.....	24,535,116	240,602	1851.....	27,853,890	209,588

The progress of this consumption was checked by the fluctuation of prices. When it was the highest, the export to Europe direct, instead of through England, was the greatest.

The years 1841–42 show the smallest consumption in England. The first year was, however, one of large sales and high prices by the United States. In the year 1842, however, the prices fell ruinously. In 1844, the English consumption was larger than ever, but the price by no means so high as formerly.

We learn from the *Cincinnati Price Current* that, as a market for manufactured tobacco, Cincinnati has for years past been a port of considerable importance to manufacturers, and the statistics of the trade presented below show a very rapid increase in the receipts and sales for consumption. This trade has, in a great measure, been a branch of the grocery business, but within the last few years Tobacco Commission Houses have been established here, who act as agents for manufacturers, and through these agencies the wholesale trade is chiefly supplied.

The merchants of Cincinnati, interested in the tobacco trade, are now making preparations for the erection of the necessary accommodation for a tobacco market. The City Council, some months since, passed an ordinance to establish tobacco inspection in the city of Cincinnati, and the same body have appointed an inspector, and also granted a license for a Tobacco Warehouse. The latter is already constructed, on an extensive scale, on Pearl-street.

The following are the sections of the Cincinnati ordinance relating to warehouses:—

SEC. 2. That warehouses shall hereafter be licensed by the City Council of the city

of Cincinnati, for the storage, inspection, and sale of tobacco in hogsheads or boxes. Such warehouses shall be built of brick or stone, with safe and substantial roofing of shingles, tin, or copper, or other materials considered safe, and otherwise constructed as to keep securely, and guard against fire, and the weather, as far as practicable, all tobacco stored therein; and such houses shall at all times be kept in good repair and condition, for receiving, storing, inspecting, selling, and delivering tobacco in hogsheads or boxes. The owner or owners shall have the right to close or discontinue their warehouses at pleasure, after having given written notice of such intention to said City Council at least sixty days before the time fixed by them for closing said tobacco warehouses.

SEC. 3. Such warehouses shall be used for the storage, &c., of tobacco as aforesaid, and shall be kept open and in proper condition, with the necessary conveniences to receive, inspect, sell, and deliver, hogsheads or boxes of tobacco. The proprietor or proprietors of each tobacco warehouse shall provide and continually keep in order scales of sufficient size and strength to weigh at least one ton weight, which shall be tested at least once in every year, and oftener, if required, by the standard of weights and measures; and shall provide one or more coopers and able-bodied men to do all the coopering, and to handle the tobacco stored, inspected, and sold in such warehouse, and to do all things needful in receiving, storing, inspecting, selling, coopering, and delivering hogsheads or boxes of tobacco. He or they shall likewise provide and keep in said warehouse a well-bound book of proper size, in which he shall enter the marks, numbers, gross, tare, and net weight of each hogshead or box of tobacco received at his warehouse, when received, when inspected, when sold, and when delivered, the owner's or planter's name, the name of the purchaser, the price, and fees of each hogshead or box of tobacco inspected and sold at such warehouse. He shall make out bills for the planter, weigh, and mark each hogshead or box of tobacco.

SEC. 4. The proprietor or proprietors of a warehouse, shall be responsible for the safe keeping and delivery of tobacco stored in their warehouse, except in case of fire or unavoidable accidents, and shall deliver all tobacco to the owner on the side-walk within a reasonable time after demand at the warehouse, and presentation of the receipt thereof to one of the proprietors of the house or his clerk, and the tender of the fees due the warehouse upon such tobacco.

SEC. 5. The proprietor or proprietors of a warehouse shall enter into bond with good security, to be approved by the Mayor of Cincinnati, payable to the city of Cincinnati, in the penal sum of one thousand dollars, well and truly to do, perform, and comply with all the provisions of this act, and any person injured by the said warehouse men, may sue thereon, and recover as in other cases, in any court having jurisdiction in such case, for any failure, refusal, or neglect of duties herein required.

Section 8 regulates the charges as follows:—

SEC. 8. The fees to be collected by the proprietor or proprietors of each warehouse, shall be as follows:—Two dollars and five cents per hogshead or box for receiving, storing, weighing, coopering, marking, selling at public outcry, or at private sale, at the request of the owner of the tobacco, collecting and making out bills of sale, and twenty cents for the inspection. Of this amount, the planter or owner of the tobacco shall pay one dollar, and the purchaser or holder of the note of inspection, payable upon the execution and delivery of said note by the proprietors, one dollar and twenty-five cents.

The tobacco manufacturers of Lynchburg, Va., have called a convention of all the manufacturers of the article in that State, and of all the agents throughout the United States, to assemble at Richmond on some day not yet designated, to consider the propriety of suspending operations during the winter months—that is, that no tobacco shall be put up for market during the months of January, February, and March. It is contended that under the system now pursued, the tobacco put up during those months is forced on the Northern markets in April and May, and must either be sold at a sacrifice, or held over until the fall, when it becomes moldy, and unfit for chewing purposes.

Tobacco is packed in hogsheads for shipment: it is done with the greatest care; and the pressure applied is so great that a hogshead 48 inches in length, and 30 or 32 inches in diameter, will contain one thousand pounds

weight. Upon the arrival of the tobacco in England, it is conveyed to bonding-warehouses, examined, charged with duty, and sold to the manufacturers.

The manufacture of the tobacco-leaves into the numerous varieties of tobacco for smoking in pipes is commenced by loosening and opening the bundles, and sprinkling the leaves with water. The stalks are then stripped from the leaves; this is effected by women or boys, who fold the leaf along the middle, and, by means of a small instrument, separate the stalks from the leaves, and lay them aside in different heaps. To prepare them for being cut into shreds, the leaves are pressed together in large numbers. When removed from the press to the cutting-engine, the cake of leaves is as hard as a board; yet it retains a slight degree of clamminess or moisture from the leaves having been previously sprinkled. In cutting the tobacco, the cake of leaves is laid upon an iron bed, which is susceptible of a slow progressive motion by means of a screw, which passes beneath it, and is connected with a cog-wheel in such a manner that, while the machine is moving, the bed is constantly urged forward. Another part of the mechanism gives motion to the knife, which has a sharp blade, rather longer than the width of the cake, and is pivoted on a hinge or fulcrum at one end, the other rising and falling with the action of the machinery.

The kind called *pig-tail* tobacco is produced by a process similar to spinning, and requires the simultaneous aid of a man and two boys. A bench several yards in length is made use of, with a spinning-wheel at one end, turned by one of the boys. The other boy arranges a number of damp leaves, with the stalks removed, end to end upon the bench, taking care to lay them smooth and open; and the man immediately follows him, and rolls up the leaves in the form of a cord by a peculiar motion of his hand. As fast as this is done, the finished tail is wound upon the spinning-wheel. It is transferred from the spinning-wheel, by the action of the machinery, to a frame connected with it; and subsequently it is wound or twisted up into a hard close ball.

For the following years the consumption of tobacco in the United Kingdom, and the duty thereon, were—

Years.	Consumption.	Duty per lb.	Years.	Consumption.	Duty per lb.
1801.....lbs.	16,514,998	1s. 7d.	1831.....lbs.	15,350,018	3s.
1811.....	14,923,243	2s. 2d.	1841.....	16,000,000	3s.
1821.....	12,983,197	4s.			

Seven-eighths of all the tobacco brought into Great Britain is grown in the United States. The duties payable are 3s. 1½d. per lb. on unmanufactured tobacco; 9s. 5½d. per lb. on cigars and manufactured tobacco; and 6s. 3½d. per lb. on snuff.

The imports in the two years in the United Kingdom were—

	1849.	1850.
Unmanufactured.....lbs.	42,098,126	33,894,506
Manufactured and snuff.....	1,913,474	1,532,829

The British home consumption is about 28,000,000 lbs. annually, the rest being re-exported. The gross duties realized in the two years, was £4,425,040 and £4,430,134 respectively.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* furnishes some facts which are designed to show that Cincinnati is by far the most desirable point in the West for a tobacco market, and that, with proper warehouse facilities, and satisfactory munici-

pal regulations, Cincinnati must, within a few years, become the leading market west of the Alleghany Mountains.

In the first place, says the *Gazette*, Cincinnati is the center of a very extensive tobacco region, where greater varieties are produced than in any other section of the country. In Eastern Ohio is grown the "yellow leaf," which is in great favor with the Russian and French governments, and German States. The "seed leaf" is raised on the Miami River. The "Mason County leaf" is produced in the vicinity of Ripley, Ohio, and Maysville, Kentucky, and this is a quality always in active request. The "heavy leaf" is grown on the Kentucky River, and in the vicinity of Carrolton and Warsaw. The sections in which these descriptions are produced are all adjacent to Cincinnati, and a considerable portion of the products pass through Cincinnati, and this trade may of course be controlled here, if we can only establish a market. Besides, continues the *Gazette*, we may secure the greater portion of the tobacco raised on the Big Kanawha, in Indiana, and on the Green, Cumberland, and Tennessee Rivers. Thus it is seen there exists all around Cincinnati the materials with which to establish a most important tobacco market, and thereby bring to Cincinnati a large and valuable trade.

"The planters who have been accustomed to sell in the interior markets, convenient to their respective farms, or to ship to New York via New Orleans or Louisville, will naturally inquire, before entertaining an idea of seeking a market here, what our advantages are, and if Cincinnati merchants can offer greater inducements than those of other Western or Southern cities.

"In order to meet the inquiries which may be raised on this point, we will remark that we claim advantages which will enable a purchaser of tobacco in this market to pay a higher price than the same article will net the seller in any other market.

"From the moment a hogshead of tobacco is packed until it reaches the manufacturer, every day it is delayed during the transportation, and every time it is handled, adds to the first cost of the article, and this, with the freight, insurance, and other charges, all have to be paid indirectly by the producer. This is a plain principle of political economy. Now, if by bringing tobacco from Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana, to this point, and hence distributing to New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and European countries, it can be delivered in less time, and at less expense, than when forwarded via New Orleans, or to Louisville, thence to be shipped to this city and the Eastern seaboard cities; is it not clear that the first cost of the article may be reduced, and this would, of course, increase the profits of the planter, while it will not diminish those of the dealer. To this there can be but one reply. But can it be done? Let us see.

"The following is a close estimate of the cost of the transportation of a hogshead of tobacco from Louisville to the North via New Orleans:—

Drayage in Louisville	$0 50
Freight to New Orleans	3 26
Insurance to New Orleans	0 62
Charges to New Orleans	1 75
Freight by ship	7 00
Insurance to New York	2 00
Total	$15 12

"The time occupied in this route varies from forty-five to sixty days.

"The cost of transporting by two of the Northern routes from this city to New York is as follows, per hogshead of 1,200 lbs.:—

By railroad to Cleveland, lake to Dunkirk, and railroad thence to New York, time six to eight days—

Drayage in Cincinnati	$0 25
Freight to New York	8 16
Insurance on lake	0 15
Total	$8 56

"Showing a saving of six dollars and fifty-six cents per hogshead in freight and other expenses, and from one to two months in time.

"The figures which we have set down as the charges from the city include the commission of the forwarding merchants here, so that there cannot be any additional charge to shippers or consignees.

"Via railroad to the Lake, steamer to Buffalo, canal to New York, expense is as follows, and time eighteen days:—

Drayage in Cincinnati	$0 25
Freight to New York	6 90
Insurance on Lake	0 30
Total	$7 45

"Being about one dollar less than by the other Northern route, and seven dollars and sixty-seven cents less than by New Orleans.

"Via railroad to Cleveland, steam to Ogdensburg, and railroad thence to Boston, the expense is:—

Drayage in Cincinnati	$0 25
Freight to Boston	9 00
Insurance on Lake	0 15
Total	$9 40

"The foregoing facts show that, taking Louisville as the starting point for the Southern route, and Cincinnati for the Northern route, the saving in actual expense in favor of the Northern routes is about 50 per cent. In addition to this, we must take into consideration the time occupied on the several routes, and the heavy damages that all tobacco suffers while being transported to the North, or any other point, via New Orleans. This is a point which planters fully understand, as they do also the advantages of the saving in time, and we need not, therefore, dwell upon these features."

Art. IV.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI IN 1852.*

In accordance with a plan we have adopted for a year or two past, we lay before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* a valuable "*Review of the Trade and Commerce of Cincinnati for the year ending August 31st, 1852, as reported to the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce and published in the Cincinnati Price-Current, by* Richard Smith, *Superintendent of the Merchants' Exchange.*" The Chamber of Commerce in Cincinnati deserve the thanks of the commercial and business community throughout the country for their efforts to diffuse correct information touching the trade and Commerce of an important portion of the country, by the employment of a

* For a similar review of the Trade and Commerce of Cincinnati for the year ending August 31st, 1851, see *Merchants' Magazine* for October, 1851, (vol. xxv., pages 429 to 445.) For statistics of the Trade and Commerce of Cincinnati for 1852, see our department in the present number devoted to "Commercial Statistics."

gentlemen every way qualified for the task of exhibiting clear and comprehensive statements of the commercial affairs of the great and growing West. It is a matter of regret that the New York Chamber of Commerce, representing as it does, or should, the great commercial emporium of the nation, has not seen fit to adopt a similar plan.

In our number for October, 1852, we published the annual statement of the "Trade and Commerce of New Orleans" as furnished to our hands by the intelligent editor of the *Price-Current* of that city. The character of our Journal as a book of reference, gives an historical value to the publication of such articles in the pages of a work like the *Merchants' Magazine*, the volumes of which are to be found in every judiciously constituted public library in our own country, and in most of the great libraries of Europe.

THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI FOR THE COMMERCIAL YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

In our last annual report we had occasion to notice the general commercial prospects of the country as being highly favorable, and in presenting our annual statement at this time upon the recurrence of a new commercial year, it is gratifying to be able to state that the expectations entertained at the commencement of the season have been realized almost in their fullest extent. This favorable result is to be attributed in a great degree to the abundant crops produced in 1851, and the absence of a falsely based speculative movement in the leadng staple products of the country. The apprehension of a commercial crisis entertained prior to, and at the close of the last commercial year were removed early in the fall by continued heavy and increased receipts of the precious metal from California, and during the last eight months monetary affairs have been unusually easy. Capital in all the Eastern cities has been abundant and cheap. For several months loans were freely made in New York at 3½ and 4 per cent per annum. Notwithstanding this abundance of capital, the markets for produce generally maintained a quiet appearance, and breadstuffs throughout ruled low, and for all leading articles the demand was chiefly of a strictly legitimate character, and the value of the several staples, for the most part was regulated by supply, and the regular consumptive demand—thence the present healthy condition of trade.

In our prospective remarks at the close of the last commercial year we took occasion to express the opinion that the hog crop of 1851–2 would not vary materially in extent from that of the preceding season, and the result proved that we were not very much astray. In a reported crop of equal to 268,000,000 pounds there was a deficiency of 16,000,000. In the same connection we remarked, that with an increase of one-fourth or one-fifth over the crop of 1850–51 the prospects were not unfavorable as regarded prices of the manufactured article, although it was evident hogs would command over $4 50. This opinion was based upon the great deficiency in the stocks of old products; upon this point the course of the market has shown that we were entirely correct. From the commencement of the season prices steadily advanced until they reached an unusually high point; where, with but slight variations, they have been sustained throughout. It was not expected at the commencement of the year that there would be any considerable foreign demand for hog products. In this respect the trade has resulted as was expected, with the exception of lard, for which there has lately been a very active demand, and the amount exported is considerably in excess of last year's shipments.

With regard to the market for cereal products we remarked that in consequence of two abundant harvests in succession in this country, and an average yield throughout Europe, the tendencies of the trade favored prices very little above, if not below a producing point. Such precisely has been the result of the season's business—prices throughout having averaged but a trifle over $3 00 per barrel for flour—being nearly fifty cents below the average of last season.

Notwithstanding the average supplies of home and continental wheat in the markets of England, the low prices current on this side the Atlantic induced a moderate foreign demand for our wheat and flour, and the exports show an increase of about three hundred thousand barrels of the latter, as compared with last year. Of Indian corn, however, the exports to Great Britain and Ireland show a falling off of six hundred thousand bushels. The consumption of this article in England and Ireland increases and diminishes in proportion as the value of flour rises and falls—consequently, while the latter rules low, the foreign demand for the former must be limited.

In this country corn has been relatively dearer than flour, owing to the high price of hogs, and the probability is that the relative value will continue in about the same proportion during the ensuing six months at least.

In accordance with our usual custom we will, before closing this branch of our general remarks, glance briefly at the prospective condition of trade generally, but more especially with reference to the leading Western staples.

In our last annual report we had occasion to notice a large yield of cereal productions in the seasons of 1850 and 1851 which, in the absence of more than a very moderate foreign demand, and with a comparatively low currency in the home markets, has added largely to the surplus stocks in the country. This year the harvests that have been garnered up to this time have been, as regards quantity and quality, fully equal to those of either of the two preceding seasons, and the yield of oats and barley is said to be larger than ever before. It was also believed that wheat would be greatly in excess, but this expectation has been realized in but few localities, owing to the rapid progress of vegetation in the spring and early summer months having made a large quantity of straw. The fields while standing looked well, but the yield was not equal to the appearance. There was, however, a full average crop, which added to the already large stock in the granaries, increases the supplies in the country far beyond what they have ever before been. Of corn a full average stock is held over from last year's crop, but it is quite probable that the growing crop will fall somewhat short of an average yield. The season for planting was cold and wet, and perhaps one-half the ground had to be replanted. Thus the season was two or three weeks later than usual. Then again, before the plants were fairly in tassel a severe drought commenced, which continued in two-thirds of the corn growing sections of the West for fully six weeks, and about three weeks ago the prospects for even half a crop were decidedly unfavorable. Copious and general rains have, however, since materially changed the appearance of the plants, and although the product per acre will be one-fourth below an average, the yield throughout the West will not be this much short, as the increased breadth of land planted will make up in part the deficiency.

With regard to the crop of hogs we cannot speak with as much certainty as of the supply of grains. But from all the information in our possession, and we have endeavored to inform ourselves pretty fully, we have arrived at the conclusion that there will be an increase in number and weight, as compared with last season, that will in products be equal to fifteen or twenty-five per cent of last year's crop. There are no dealers, so far as we are advised, who anticipate a supply smaller than that of last year, while the majority, perhaps, predicate their transactions upon an increase, The low prices that were obtained for hogs for some seasons prior to 1850–51, and the relatively higher value of corn in the same seasons, induced farmers to reduce their stock of hogs, and thus a rapid decline has been experienced in the crop until the stock of provisions has been reduced very low, and the value of hogs greatly enhanced. Now the inducements to increase the supply of hogs, and to make those on hand as heavy as possible are much stronger than those which induced an opposite course. But it is not believed to be possible for supplies to be increased much, if any, beyond the per centage mentioned above. Beyond this season, however, dealers look for a rapid increase until an over-production will cause a change in the trade similar to that which has led to the present comparative scarcity and high prices.

Of beef cattle there is in the Western country, unquestionably, a great scarcity,

and the packing business of the ensuing season will fall at least one-third or one-fourth short of last year's business, and in this section of country it is supposed the supply will not be much more than equal to the demand for local consumption. In the Western States the constant tide of emigration to California has greatly reduced the supply, and in every section of Illinois and Iowa steers are extremely scarce, and unusually dear.

From the statement presented above it appears that the supply of wheat in the West at this time is unusually large, and that with a favorable fall for the maturing of the grain there will be a full average supply of corn. What then are the prospects as regards prices? Unless a very large foreign demand is experienced during the season for wheat and flour, prices in the home markets must rule low—certainly not above—but perhaps below the average of the past season. The prospects for such a demand are not *certainly* favorable. Within the last few weeks prices have advanced in England in consequence of the reappearance of the potato rot, and unfavorable weather for harvesting—and orders have been sent to this country from both France and England, but these orders were sent, principally, when flour in New York was below $4 for good brands—a price that would not justify $3 in this market. Since then flour has advanced, and freights have also improved, in consequence of which the demand has fallen off. At the last date from Europe the trade was in a state of suspense—the weather was at the time unfavorable, and the potato rot was prevailing in some districts, but nothing definite was known. A few weeks, however, will determine this whole matter, and it is useless, therefore, to speculate upon it. We repeat, however, that the prospects do not favor any better prices than were obtained last year. Corn will, doubtless, rule relatively higher than wheat, owing to the high price of hogs, and it is not likely that the foreign exports will be much, if any, greater than last season.

Early in the summer contracts were made for hogs as low as $4 75, but very little was done below $5 00, and, two or three weeks since, when it was expected there would be a very short crop of corn, some contracts were made as high as $5 50, and considerable was done at $5 25. At this time, however, the feeling is decidedly less favorable to sellers, and it would be difficult to effect sales at over $5, although at this price there are not many persons willing to sell. From the condition of the market, and all attending circumstances, it is evident that prices will open at or over $5 per 100 lbs. net, and unless the crop should prove much larger than is anticipated, the business will justify the figure we have named. As we have already stated, the stocks of hog products have been for several years steadily diminishing, and this season there will be very little old stuff in any of the markets of the country, when the new product begins to go forward.

The market for beef cattle will be influenced by the price of hogs, and it is evident that very full rates will be realized from the commencement of the season.

As the agricultural interests underlie every branch of trade, we are enabled, knowing the present condition of the former, to form a pretty correct opinion as to the prospects of business generally, during the ensuing year. Although breadstuffs do not, nor are not likely to command high prices, yet the supply is so large, that even at low rates, the aggregate receipts therefor will be heavy, while the consuming classes will be supplied with cheap food. Then the price of hogs and cattle is fully 50 per cent above the average value, in ordinary seasons, and the increased income from this source will make up fully whatever may be deficient in other branches. Upon the whole, therefore, the farming interests are in a healthy condition. The effect of this will be experienced in trade, and already it is beginning to be felt. The country merchants are discharging their liabilities very well this season—much better than for several years past. This results from the payment of long-deferred debts by consumers, whereby the country merchant is able, in time, to remove his liabilities. This condition of things will open the way for an increased consumption of groceries, hardware, dry goods, etc., and in these departments a large business may, therefore, be expected.

Before closing these general remarks we will devote a short space to a notice of the railroad interests of Cincinnati.

In our last annual report we noticed that the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Railroad was nearly completed, and that roads connecting therewith and extending into Indiana were also progressing rapidly. The former road was opened to Dayton in the month of September last for passengers, and in November it commenced carrying freight. The number of passengers carried over the road, earnings, etc., for nine months, ending June 30th, were as follows:—

1852.	No. Pass.	Pass. Earnings.	Freight Earnings.	Ex. Bag. and Exp.	Total.
Ten days in September ..	2,916	$2,502 80	.....	$14 45	$2,517 25
October.....	18,186½	16,306 76	.....	532 08	16,838 84
November.....	13,716½	11,832 51	$345 97	262 75	12,441 23
December.....	14,493½	11,445 45	4,771 78	116 72	16,333 95
January,.....	11,401	8,736 95	5,921 36	87 14	14,715 45
February.....	12,311½	9,893 15	4,241 95	135 40	14,270 50
March	16,265½	13,557 53	6,357 10	152 66	20,067 29
April.....	17,038	14,314 72	5,865 26	301 30	20,481 28
May.....	18,096½	15,386 61	8,133 62	180 92	23,701 15
June	19,389½	16,315 16	8,394 81	104 55	24,814 02
Total.....	143,814½	120,291 64	44,031 35	1,887 97	166,210 96

Since the first of July the road from Hamilton to Eaton has been opened, and also the road from Dayton to Greenville, both of which are doing a large local business. Another link of the Eaton road, extending from Eaton to Richmond, will be completed the ensuing fall, and the Greenville road will be extended and connected at Union with the Indianapolis and Belfontaine Railroad on the 1st of December next, thus making a continuous route from this city to Indianapolis, which will be run in nine hours. The road from Dayton to Troy, in Miami County, will be completed within six months. The stock of the Cincinnati and Dayton road sold early in the season as low as 80; but the rapid increase in the business of the road soon enhanced its value, and it is now worth, in this market, 97 a 98. The company declared a cash dividend of 4 per cent, out of the earnings of the road up to the 1st of July. This is the only instance recorded in the history of Western railroads of a company declaring a cash dividend out of the earnings of the first nine months of its existence.

The Little Miami Railroad has continued to do a large freight and passenger business, and its earnings are immensely large. In June a semi-annual dividend of five dollars per share, payable half in cash and half in stock was declared. This stock advanced 110, and it is now worth 108, or $54 per share of fifty dollars. As this was the first road from this city, its history is well calculated to show the progress of business, and the rapid advances which have been made within a few years. For such a sketch we have not room here, but one fact connected with the matter is worthy of notice. Soon after the first links of the road were opened several parties who had subscribed to the stock of the company became anxious to realize, and it was freely offered at $12 50 on the share; and in one instance that we heard of, it sold as low as *seven dollars*. Now the same stock is more saleable at *fifty-four dollars* than it was then at the extremely low price mentioned.

The Ohio and Mississippi Railroad is making satisfactory progress, and since our last report has been placed under contract for its entire length, 335 miles. Messrs. H. C. Seymour & Co., the contractors for the road, have sublet that portion of the line extending from this city to its intersection with the Jeffersonville Railroad in Indiana, and also the Western Division extending through the State of Illinois from Vincennes to the Mississippi River opposite St. Louis. Engineering parties in large force are preparing the remainder of the line, (about 120 miles,) which will, doubtless, be sublet in a few weeks. Already the laborers are at work at various points in the three States, and additional grading forces are daily being added to those already on the ground. New vigor has been imparted to the enterprise, and with the present prospect it is confidently antici-

pated that cars will be running in connection with the Madison and Indianapolis Railroad in twelve months, and the entire distance between this city and St. Louis within three years.

The survey, as made, establishes the important fact that this route is nearer to an air line than that of any other in the United States. The intersection lines in Indiana and Illinois, which are built, or will be finished within three years, are a valuable feature in the future productiveness of this road, and the completion of the routes east from this city will offer a choice of roads to the traveler, or shipper, of great value. The Parkersburg route of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad will, when completed, give a continuous line of rails from St. Louis to Baltimore, and this latter road is in a state of vigorous prosecution, with hopes of completion in two years from this time.

We confidently anticipate that funds will not be wanting to complete this important line of communication between our city and St. Louis. Our neighbors of the South are moving with spirit in bringing up the lines from Mobile and New Orleans, which will supply the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad with an incalculable amount of travel.

The Covington and Lexington Railroad is progressing rapidly, and a portion of the road from Covington will be opened early in the spring. This road, as we remarked in our last annual report, will prove of great importance to the trade of Cincinnati, connecting, as it must very soon, with the great system of railways which are being constructed in the Southern States.

During the year a road has been projected from Louisville to Covington, the route of which is now being surveyed, and it will, doubtless, be constructed at no distant period.

The Cincinnati, Hillsborough, and Parkersburg Railroad is now in operation from Hillsborough to Morrow, where it connects with the Little Miami Railroad to Cincinnati. Two hundred thousand dollars in cash was subscribed in this city to this road a few days since to aid in the construction of a line into the coal and iron regions, and in extending the road to Parkersburg. This road will, it is now generally conceded, form the Ohio link of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and as this will insure to it a heavy passenger and freight business, it will greatly enhance the value of the stock. Aside from this consideration, a great interest has been taken in the road in this city in consequence of its penetrating the coal and iron regions. As already remarked, the road at present connects with the Little Miami Railroad at Morrow, but it is the intention of the company to construct an independent road into the city, entering through the proposed Walnut Hills Tunnel, by which route five miles will be saved, and depot accomodations obtained very near the center of business.

The route of the Cincinnati and Dayton Short Line Railroad has been surveyed during the year, and about six months ago the company was organized, since which time vigorous and successful efforts have been made to obtain subscriptions. The company held a meeting a few days since, at which time the subscriptions had reached nearly eight hundred thousand dollars—being more than one-half the estimated cost of the road, exclusive of the rolling machinery. A resolution was passed to put the work under contract immediately. A tunnel is to be constructed through a portion of Walnut Hills, and four tracks are to be laid down from the depot, corner of Court and Broadway to Sharon, thence a single tract to Dayton. The work at the tunnel will be prosecuted vigorously during the ensuing winter.

With reference to the Commerce of our city we have no space for extended remarks, but its extent, as compared with last year, is fully exhibited in the annexed tables. Two hundred and sixty-seven different steamboats arrived at the wharf during the year, the registered tonnage of which was 60,543 tons and their capacity may be set down at 120,000 tons. The total number of arrivals during the year was about 3,700. This shows only a slight increase as compared with 1850–51, but the aggregate tonnage shows a considerable increase in favor of this year, a greater number of large boats having been engaged in the trade. The following is the number and tonnage for each year:—

	1850–51.	1851–52.
Boats engaged in the trade	223	267
Registered tonnage	51,443	60,543

The steamboat interests have been comparatively prosperous. During the business portions of the year freights were plenty, and prices, as shown by the average, were higher than in either of the two preceding years.

During the year a very strong effort has been made by our business men to obtain the passage by Congress of a bill making an appropriation for the construction of a canal of enlarged dimensions around the falls of the Ohio River, but so far, without success. The session of Congress which terminated with this month has, as is always the case preceding a Presidential election, been chiefly occupied in advocating, in both the Senate and House, the claims of the various aspirants to the highest office in the gift of the people; and it was not until last month that the friends of this measure, which is of so much importance to the whole West and South-west, were permitted to make a report upon the subject. An amendment to the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill was offered, providing for the canal, but it was defeated. In a word *nothing* has been done, except to bring the matter before the people, and now that they are awake to its importance, we may hope for favorable action by Congress, at an early day.

We shall now proceed to notice under respective heads the articles which enter most extensively into our Commerce.

Hogs and Cattle. The market for hogs opened at a price considerably above the highest rate of the preceding season, and fully fifty cents above the average rate for that year, and, with the exception of about a week in the early part of the season, prices throughout exhibited a buoyant and upward tendency, closing at 45 cts. per 100 lbs. above the opening rate.

The following statement shows the daily extreme and average prices during the packing season, also the weekly average rates for three seasons:—

	1851–52.		1851–52.	1850–51.
Date.	Extreme rate.		Average.	Average.
Nov. 21.	$4 50 a		$4 50	$3 75
22.	4 50		4 50	4 00
24.	4 50		4 50	4 00
25.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 00
26.	4 55	4 65	4 50	4 00
27.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 00
29.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 00
Dec. 1.	4 50	4 60	4 55	3 95
2.	4 50	4 55	4 55½	3 83
3.	4 50	4 55	4 52½	3 75
4.	4 50	4 55	4 52½	3 75
5.	4 50	4 55	4 52½	3 85
6.	4 55	....	4 55	3 80
8.	4 55	4 60	4 55	3 90
9.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 00
10.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 07
11.	4 50	4 60	4 55	4 10
12.	4 55	4 60	4 55	4 10
13.	4 60	4 65	4 62½	4 10
15.	4 60	4 70	4 65½	4 10
16.	4 60	4 75	4 67½	4 10

	1851–52.		1851–52.	1850–51.
Date.	Extreme rate.		Average.	Average.
Dec. 17.	$4 65 a	4 75	$4 70	$4 06
18.	4 65	4 75	4 70	4 10
19.	4 70	4 80	4 75	4 10
20.	4 75	4 85	4 79	4 05
22.	4 80	4 85	4 82	4 10
23.	4 85	4 95	4 90	4 05
24.	4 85	4 95	4 90	4 10
26.	4 85	4 90	4 87½	4 05
27.	4 80	4 90	4 85	4 10
29.	4 82	4 90	4 87	4 05
30.	4 85	....	4 85	4 15
31.	4 85	4 90	4 85	4 15
Jan. 2.	4 85	4 90	4 85	4 20
3.	4 80	4 90	4 85	4 20
4.	4 90	5 00	4 95	4 20
5.	4 90	5 00	4 95	4 20
6.	4 90	5 00	4 95	4 25
7.	4 90	5 00	4 87	4 26
8.	4 85	4 90	4 90	4 20
9.	5 85	4 95	4 90	4 20

WEEKLY AVERAGE.

Week ending	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
November 15	....	....	$2 65
November 21	....	$3 62	2 70
November 28	$4 52	4 00	2 70
December 5	4 53	3 89	2 72½
December 12	4 55	3 93	2 86

Week ending	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
December 19.....	4 69	4 10	2 84
December 27.....	4 85	4 08	2 94
January 5.....	4 87	4 09	4 07
January 11.....	4 92	4 22	3 32
January 17.....	....	4 21	3 30
Season's average	$4 70	$4 00	$2 91

The number of hogs packed in the West, according to the statement published in *the Price Current* at the close of the season was deficient as compared with the preceding year 182,021 head. In *weight* however the deficiency was equal to only about 77,000 head. The hogs the past season were better fatted than those of 1850–51, and the increase in weight ranged, as nearly as could be ascertained, from 5 to 10 per cent, and in this way the decrease in number was, in part, made up. Although reliable statistics of the pork trade are obtained with great difficulty, yet the movements of products show our statement to have been sufficiently correct for all practical purposes.

The supply of beef cattle throughout the year has been comparatively light, and prices have ruled considerably above the average currency of ordinary years. The range of prices for the season has been wide, say $3 50 to $6 00. During the packing season $4 to $5 per 100 lbs., net, were the leading rates, but since the close of the winter the retail market has been sparingly supplied, and city butchers were seldom able to purchase below $5, while for prime cattle $5 75 a $6 per 100 lbs. net was paid. The closing rates for the year are $4 75 a 5 75, embracing ordinary and choice. As remarked in another place, the supply in the West is unusually light, and this, with the high price of hog products, will continue to sustain prices above the average of last year's currency, and it is not likely that packers will get any good cattle the ensuing season for less than $5 to $5 50 per 100 lbs. net.

Provisions. At the close of the last commercial year prices of hog products ruled high, as the stocks throughout the country were unusually light and rates then current were pretty well maintained up to the commencement of the new season, when figures receded to a point corresponding with the price at which the hog market opened. Throughout the past season the tone of the market has been generally very firm, and a comparative statement of the average prices for hogs and their products for three years past shows that during the year just closed large advances were realized upon the first cost of the several manufactured articles, and the season upon the whole has proved by far the most profitable that has been experienced for many years. The high prices which prevailed for hogs at the commencement of the season induced packers generally to move cautiously, and there were few operators in the market who were not agreeably disappointed by the result of the business. The healthy tone which the market maintained throughout, and the high prices at which the old stocks are likely to be closed off are attributable fully as much to the deficiency in supplies at the commencement of the year as to the falling off in the number of hogs. As we have remarked in another place, the stocks for three years past have been steadily diminishing, and last fall the surplus was smaller than at any time in several previous seasons, and had the number of hogs proved as large as in 1850–51, the products would have been disposed of at very fair profits. The high prices undoubtedly caused a very material falling off in the consumption, as they did also in the foreign demand; but the supplies were no more than adequate to the requirements of home consumers, and the year closes again with very small stocks, and the aggregate in the whole country on the 1st of November next will be no greater, if so large, than at the corresponding date in 1851. The course of the market for the ensuing year must, therefore, be directed almost entirely by the supply of hogs, and with a crop of fourteen hundred thousand, (at the leading points,) against twelve hundred thousand last year, prices must continue to rule comparatively high. The following statement of the weekly average prices shows the course of the market during the year:—

Week ending	Mess Pork.	Keg Lard.	Plain Hams.	Bacon. Sides.	Bacon. Shoulders.
September 11.....	$15 25	10½	9	11½	8½
" 18.....	15 50	10½	9	11½	8½
" 25.....	15 50	10	9	10	8½
October 2.....	14 87	10	9	..	8
" 9..... ...	.....	..	.	..	..
" 16.....	14 00	9	.	8½	8
" 23.....	13 50	9	.	9½	6¾
" 30.....	13 00	8¾	.	8	6¾
November 6.....	12 50	8	.	..	7
" 13.....	11 50	7	8	8½	6½
" 20.....	12 00	7½	.	..	..
" 27.....	15 00	7½	.	..	..
December 4.....	12 00	7½	.	..	..
" 11.....	12 00	7½	.	..	..
" 18.....	12 00	7½	.	7	..
January 1.....	12 50	7½	.	7½	6½
" 8.....	12 50	7½	.	7½	6½
" 15.....	12 70	7¾	.	7½	6½
" 22.....	12 75	7¾	.	7½	6½
" 30.....	12 75	7¾	.	7½	6½
February 6.....	13 50	8	8½	7½	6½
" 13.....	14 00	8½	9	7½	6½
" 20.....	14 00	8½	9	7½	6½
" 27.....	13 87	8½	9	7½	6½
March 6.....	14 00	8½	9	7½	7
" 13.....	14 50	8½	8¾	8	7
" 20.....	14 00	9	8¾	8	7½
" 27.....	15 50	9½	8¾	8½	7½
April 3.....	15 50	9½	8¾	9	7¾
" 10.....	15 50	9¾	9	9	7½
" 17.....	16 00	9¾	8¾	9½	7¾
" 24.....	17 50	9¾	9½	9¾	7¾
May 1.....	17 00	10	9½	9¾	7¾
" 8.....	16 50	10	9½	9½	7½
" 15.....	16 37	10½	9½	9½	7¾
" 22.....	16 87	10½	9½	9½	7½
" 29.....	16 00	10½	9½	9½	7½
June 5.....	16 50	10½	9½	9½	7½
" 12.....	17 00	10½	9½	9½	7½
" 19.....	18 00	10½	9½	9½	7¾
" 26.....	19 00	10½	9½	9¾	7¾
July 3.....	19 62	10	9½	9¾	7¾
" 10.....	20 00	10	9¾	9½	7¾
" 17.....	20 00	10	9¾	9½	7¾
" 24.....	20 00	10	9½	9½	8
" 31.....	19 50	10½	9½	9½	8
August 1.....	19 50	11	9½	9½	8
" 8.....	19 50	11½	9½	9½	8
" 15.....	19 50	11½	9¾	9½	7¾
" 22.....	19 25	11	9¾	9½	8
" 31.....	19 00	11	9¾	9½	8

For the receipts and exports at this port for a series of years, as well as the comparative average monthly prices, we refer to the tabular tables annexed. A considerable increase will be noticed in the imports and exports, compared with the number of hogs packed in the West. This is accounted for by the heavy purchases at Louisville, St. Louis, Madison, on the Wabash, and at other points, a large portion of which was brought here, and also to receipts for reshipment via canals and railroads to eastern markets.

BREADSTUFFS. The market for flour during the past year has been almost entirely free from excitement, and, excepting a few weeks early in the fall, when a demand sprung up on European account, the operations were mostly of

a legitimate character. So steady has been the course of the market that it is not necessary to give a statement of the weekly average prices, or to refer particularly to the slight variations which occurred, or causes thereof. The extreme prices of the year were $2 90 and $3 45, and in the tables annexed will be found a statement of the monthly average, which figures also indicate with sufficient accuracy the daily and weekly currency. Supplies have been regulated throughout pretty much by prices, and consequently, although the stocks of wheat in the country are known to have been larger than ever before, we find but a slight increase in the receipts at this port, and this remark applies equally well to New York and other Eastern markets. Should anything occur during the ensuing year whereby flour may be enhanced, the receipts at all the leading ports would be greatly increased over those of the year just closed. Wheat has ranged during the year from 59 to 63 cents. As the value of this article is regulated entirely by that of flour, our remarks relative to the latter are applicable to the former. The receipts show a slight falling off as compared with last season, being 377,037 bushels, against 388,660. Although the number of mills has been reduced by the conversions of two of the Miami Canal Mills into paper manufactories, the receipts of wheat indicate but a slight falling off in the aggregate business of the city mills. For corn prices have ruled, until within the last month, considerably lower than during the season of 1850–51. During September, October, and November prices ranged from 30 to 34 cents, but from December 1st, until July 1st, prices varied from 31 down to 25 cents. The severe drought experienced in July, affecting very seriously the prospects of the growing crops, caused an advance, and in several instances 45 cents was paid by distillers, but since the crops have been improved by recent rains, the market has given way, and 40 a 42 cents are the closing rates. The value of this article, owing to the high price of hogs, is relatively higher than that of wheat, and the probability is that the market will retain this feature during the greater portion of the ensuing season. The receipts this season were 653,788 bushels, against 489,195 last year. Owing to the heavy consumption of corn in this State, by distillers, prices here are generally maintained above a shipping point, and surplus stocks above Dayton, and along the line of the Wabash and Erie Canal are taken through the Northern channels to the Eastern seaboard. The exports during the year comprise 51,231 sacks against 20,137 sacks same time last year.

Cheese. The trade in this article, which is a staple product of our State, has continued to increase, and the receipts of the past year exceed those of 1850–51, by about 40,000 boxes. It has become very evident that as the population in the Southern and South-western States increases, the cheese trade of this city must advance, this being the only distributing point for those sections of country. We are now in connection by railroad with the cheese-producing counties of this State, and very soon there will be railroad connection with the cheese-consuming States of the South, and this will greatly facilitate the trade in this, as well as in all other perishable articles. The range of prices indicates but a very slight variation from last year's currency, and the season's business has, upon the whole, resulted favorably to manufacturers. Increased attention seems to have been given to the quality of cheese, and although there is still room for improvement in this respect, rapid advances have been made within a few years. As the quality affects the consumption of this article, as well as the price, it is important to the producers that all tastes should be suited. In our last annual report we intimated that too much attention had been given to the production of fancy qualities. We have now to notice a great falling off in this branch of business, and we may add that the interests of manufacturers have been advanced by the change. The great mass of consumers prefer choice Western Reserve Cheese to any fancy brand that can be produced, especially at the extra price always demanded for the latter. For the monthly average prices, and the receipts and exports, we refer to the tables which will be found under "Commercial Statistics" in the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

Groceries. The trade in two of the leading staples comprised in this branch of business, namely, sugar and molasses, shows a very great increase as com-

pared with the previous season; and it now appears that of the entire products of sugar in the United States, one-fifth is received and sold at this port, and while New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore received during the year thirty-three million pounds of New Orleans and Texas Sugar, nearly forty-four million pounds were received at this port. In our last annual report we had occasion to refer to the internal improvements of our State as having given the first and great impetus to this trade, and we may now remark that continued extensions of these inland channels of communications in our own and the neighboring States are constantly opening new markets to our merchants, and very soon the cities and towns on the Northern Lakes, as well as all the leading places in Indiana, which hitherto have been cut off from market during the winter months, will be in communication by railroad with this city. This will obviate the necessity which the merchants of these places have been under of taking their winter and spring supplies before the closing of lake and canal navigation. With the railroads referred to, our city may be reached in a few hours, and sugar and molasses from the plantations of Louisiana may be delivered in any of the Lake cities in less than two weeks.

The fluctuations in prices during the year have been very slight in both sugar and molasses; and coffee has also been comparatively steady. There has been little or no speculative movement, and the uniformity in prices is attributable in some degree to this fact. Last September, the average price for sugar was 6 1-16 cents, and for molasses 33½ cents. The highest average was in November, when sugar was 6¼ and molasses 37½; but with the first receipts of the new crop, prices began to give way; and in December sugar was 5¼, molasses 35, and prices continued to go down until the 1st of March, when sugar was 5 cents, and molasses 27½. Since that time, sugar has ranged from 5¼ to 5¾, closing at the latter, and molasses at 30 to 34, closing at 33½. For coffee, 9 cents was the lowest, and 10¾ the highest average point reached during the year—the former in October and the latter in April. For the last two months, 9½ a 9¾ have been the average rates, closing at a range of 9½ a 9¾ for common and prime Rio. The amount of sugar and molasses imported and exported indicates heavier stocks than at the close of the last year; but there is everything to favor a heavy fall demand. In the first place, the stock being ample, prices will be kept in check. In the next place, there is in the West an abundant crop of apples, and a fair supply of other fruits suitable for preserving, while last year there was comparatively none. Then, in the next place, prices of sugar are three-eighths of a cent per pound lower than on the first of last September, and in view of the ample stock, we may safely set down the difference for the whole fall at three-quarters of a cent in favor of this season in sugar, and two to three cents per gallon in molasses.

CANDLES. The production of candles during the year diminished, in consequence of the disproportion of the price of the raw material to that of the manufactured article, and the apparent impossibility, while stocks were kept up, of obtaining remunerative prices for the latter. This has caused a great reduction in the stocks here, and as a similar course was adopted in other parts of the country, prices have everywhere simultaneously advanced. As the season is now at hand when consumption will rapidly increase, and as materials are both dear and scarce, stocks must continue light for some time to come; and operations of the ensuing season will be commenced upon a comparatively bare market. Star candles now command 22 cents, which is 2 a 3 cents above the average for the season. This is a branch of the manufactures of Cincinnati which has increased very rapidly within a few years. The exports during the season of 1846–47 comprised 16,622 boxes. Within the year just closed there were exported 121,727 boxes, showing an increase in five years of over one hundred thousand boxes. Our export tables do not show perhaps much over one-half the products of the city, but they are the only correct indication we have of the growth of the trade. We may add that within the last two years the aggregate capacity of the manufactories of the city has been considerably increased; since which time, owing to the causes mentioned above, none of the establishments have produced an average quantity.

OILS. In our annual report on last September, we remarked, relative to linseed, that, with a pretty full crop of seed, there would be sufficient Western oil to keep prices at a point that would prevent importations from the Eastern ports, or from Europe, whence a portion of our supplies for the previous year had been derived. The result has proved our observations on this point to have been correct. The market for the year just closed opened at 69 a 70, and between the latter rate and 58; prices have since fluctuated, being the most of the time, however, below 65 and above 60. The consumptive demand since the opening of spring has been heavy, but although the stock in this market has been pretty well reduced, the supply was at all times equal to the demand, and that buoyancy which would indicate a healthy trade was seldom observable. Very recently prices advanced in New York, and this caused a demand for the North which enabled dealers here to establish an advance from 58 a 60 to 65 a 68, the market closing at the latter. The probability is that during the ensuing year prices will fall below the average of the past season. The crop of seed in the West is larger than for several years past, and with a corresponding production of oil prices will be very likely to give way. We do not, however, look for very low rates, as a large quantity of the seed that will be required by millers has been laid in at a cost of $1 a $1 05, although the present market value is only 90 cents, and oil pressed from seed purchased at these rates will make a loss, if sold, much below 60 cents. In lard oil an advance of 10 a 15 cents per gallon has been establishd on last year's currency, and for five or six months past 70 a 85 has been the range for good No. 2 to pure No. 1, and at these rates the market closes. Two occurrences contributed to this result. The first was the advance in lard to a point above a manufacturing price. This at once checked the production of oil. The other was a deficiency in whale oil, with a large advance in the price of that commodity. This created an increased demand for lard oil, while, as stated, the production was reduced, and thus stocks have been diminished, until they are now unusually light. The operations of the ensuing season will, therefore, be commenced upon a comparatively bare market.

WOOL. In our last annual report we noticed that the market opened under considerable excitement, and at high prices, but subsequently to the close of the commercial year, the trade reacted, and early purchasers made heavy losses. The past season opened differently from that of the preceding year, and it promises to close at prices that will fully remunerate purchasers. Before the incoming of the new clip a seemingly united effort was made to depress prices. Eastern dealers, who had their agents throughout the West, withdrew, and resolved to await the receipt of the wool in the respective markets. This had, for a time, a decided influence upon prices; but the demand soon became active, and from a point 10 cents below the opening rates of 1851, prices have advanced from two to three cents above the highest price of that season. The following were the current rates on the 31st of August, for three years:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Full blood	35 a 38	38 a 40	39 a 42
¾ "	33 35	37 38	36 38
½ "	30 33	34 35	34 35
¼ "	28 30	31 32	32 34
Common	27 28	29 31	30 32

A new feature in the trade this year is the importation of foreign wool. One of our dealers, A. D. Bullock, Esq., has received lately 122,000 lbs. This description, we are informed, is required by Western manufacturers.

WHISKY. The imports of this article show an increase of 28,774 barrels, as compared with last year, and the exports are 276,124 barrels, against 231,324. The exports exceed the imports about 4,000 barrels. This is accounted for by the fact that the whisky manufactured in the city and brought in by wagons is not included in our imports, while it of course gets into our export tables, as it is sent forward. The average prices have fallen below those of last year—being $6 75 per barrel against $8 in 1850–51, and $9 in 1849–50. The imports and value were as follows:—

	Barrels.	Value.
1851–52.....	272,788	$1,773,122
1850–51.....	244,047	1,952,376
1849–50.....	186,687	1,680,102

On the first of September, 1851, the price was 17¼ cents; now the market closes at 18¼ cents. The apprehended failure of the corn crop a few weeks since caused an advance of fully two cents per gallon, which is still maintained, though the prospect now is that we shall have a fair crop of corn. But the excitement caused a falling off in the production, distillers having been unable to procure grain, and just at this time there is a scarcity in some of the markets.

Tobacco. The market for manufactured was steady, with a good demand, at the close of our last annual review; but as was then stated, the crops in the Western States promised well, and resulted in an abundant yield, which produced a downward tendency in prices of lower grades. The market, during the winter, continued dull, and prices gradually declined, until about the middle of June, when the indications of the growing crop became very unfavorable, in the Western States, and this, along with a very active foreign demand, caused a material advance in prices of leaf; and, in Virginia the finer qualities commanded higher rates than ever before realized; several parcels having sold in the leading markets in that State at prices ranging from $90 to $150 per hundred pounds. These extravagant rates were obtained in consequence of an unusual scarcity of the finer qualities, and indeed of all the good to prime working descriptions, there being a failure of the crop of 1851 throughout all the Eastern States.

The crop in the West was very abundant, and the amount cultivated was larger than any previous season, as will be seen by the imports of leaf tobacco at New Orleans, which were in 1850–51, 63,318 hhds., and in 1851–52, 87,338; showing an increase of over twenty-four thousand hhds., so that the trade has proved very profitable to the West, and paid a large profit to the agriculturists. The crops in Virginia promise well this season, but in the West the late, cold spring, and the dry weather in July, has left but little hope of realizing anything near an average yield; but, notwithstanding, should the fall weather continue warm and favorable, and no early frost come, a fair crop may be realized. This is, however, hardly to be expected. The prices for leaf and manufactured closed very firm in all our domestic markets. The stock of manufactured in our market is very light, the sales the past month having been immensely large, and the high rates ruling in Virginia prevent manufacturers sending on the usual supplies to this market. The trade at this point continues rapidly to increase.

The exports this season have been 24,064 boxes, against 17,751 last season, and the imports 22,142, against 19,273 last season. In connection with this, our manufacturing facilities have been greatly extended, and there are now twenty-six establishments in this city and the neighboring counties of Kentucky, who sell all their manufactured articles here, as well as one or two establishments in Louisville who make great consignments to our tobacco factors during the season.

Money and Exchange. The money-market for the past year has presented more variety than we have hitherto had occasion to chronicle. We have had money scarcer, and rates said to be higher than ever before; and we have also had money more plentiful and rates lower than for a good many years. In consequence of the extreme scarcity of water in the river last fall, and the unheard of event of its being twice closed by ice in the winter, the demand for money for several months was so much greater than the supply, that those whose necessities were urgent had to submit to such rates as the lenders chose to ask; but since then, in consequence of the high prices of provisions, and the facilities with which they were disposed of, combined with the great abundance of money at the East and in Europe, which enabled our railroad projectors to dispose of their securities at full prices, and thus carry on their works with unexampled rapidity, the tables have been completely turned; and although money can hardly be said to have become a drug, it has yet been easier of attainment, and the rates have ruled lower than at any time since the suspension of specie payments in 1837. And the system of paying high rates of interest on current deposites, by

the bankers and brokers, which has so extensively prevailed in this city during the last few years, has received a check from which it may never recover. The actual capital of our city has largely increased, business generally has been remunerative, many have made large fortunes, and from borrowers have become lenders of money; and upon the whole, we cannot but congratulate our readers, both at home and abroad, upon the unusually healthy state of things which now prevails in our midst. It is true, our *banking* capital is now smaller than it has been since 1832, but the capital *of our business men* has largely increased, and the absence, therefore, of banking facilities is not felt to so great an extent as it would otherwise be.

The system of taxation which was adopted by the Legislature at its session of 1850 and 1851, severe though it was, was yielded to by the banks with but few exceptions—a few however did resist and brought the matter before the courts and the decisions so far have been in their favor. At the session of 1851 and 1852, however, still more stringent laws were passed, which operate so severely that some of the banks have actually closed up, and others are in progress, while those who continue to do business have determined to resist, and there is but little doubt of their success, as the amount of tax required to be paid by the last law ranges from about double to at least four times the amount guarantied to them by their charters, and is generally considered as unconstitutional and void. What the wisdom of this is we are at a loss to determine. Every business man knows that the growth of our city, large as it is, has been materially retarded by the want of banking capital, and during the last few years many large orders for machinery, &c., have been driven away from this city to Louisville and other rival points, because the small capital of our banks did not enable them to take bills having over three months to run, while the more liberal and wise policy of the neighboring States, where banking accommodations are larger, has enabled those institutions to discount bills as long as four and six months. This is not mere theory, but plain, honest, unvarnished truth, based upon facts which have actually occurred, and will again while we have such short-sighted legislation. Other interests have also suffered in a similar way, and large quantities of our great staple, (as it used to be called,) pork, were packed and cured in other cities, because there four and six months' bills could be negotiated with full as much readiness as those of half that length could be here. We might extend this subject *ad infinitum*, but sufficient has been said to draw attention to it and show how such legislation operates, and how it always will do. As a State we are old enough to know better, but while we make questions of such importance party tests, there is but little hope of improvement.

Exchange has ruled low during the whole year, ranging on the East between ¼ a ½ per cent premium, and on the South at from 1 per cent down to par.

Specie has also been low—gold bringing from ¼ to ½, with a supply fully equal to the demand; while silver, except for purposes of change, has been much more inactive than during the previous year.

As we have already occupied more space than we usually allot to this subject, we will only congratulate ourselves and our readers upon the healthy condition of our monetary affairs. As a State, and nation, we are becoming more wealthy and prosperous, and if our present prosperity do not lead to further extravagance, we have but little to fear. The clouds that obscured our Eastern horizon when we made our last annual report, have, as we then hoped, all long since disappeared; the golden sun of California has been, if not eclipsed, at least rivaled by his powerful competitor in Australia, and ships laden with gold plow the bosoms of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, scarcely creating more commotion than the passage of one of our steamers upon the surface of our own river.

Steamboat Building. In our last annual report we had occasion to notice a very marked improvement in this branch of business, and we have now the gratification to be able to report continued activity. Although there is but a slight increase in the number or tonnage of boats constructed and completed up to the close of the year, the business exhibits a very active appearance, ten large boats being still on the stocks, and four afloat, nearly finished. The latter, and a portion of the former, will be ready for the early fall business; but our statement

includes only those boats which have been constructed and *registered* within the commercial year. Comparing the number of boats finished during the year ending with August, 1851, and the number being constructed at that time, with the number built the past season, and those now constructing, a very considerable increase in favor of this season is shown. By glancing at the annexed list of boats, and registered tonnage, it will be seen that but few small class boats have been built, while several are of the largest size, carrying as high as eleven hundred tons. In this connection it may be proper to remark that the Custom-house measurement, or registered tonnage which we give, does not indicate the actual capacity of the boats. The latter exceeds the former fully 100 per cent. The *capacity* of the tonnage constructed the past season is, therefore, about *nineteen thousand* tons.

Names of boats.	Registered tonnage.	Names of boats.	Registered tonnage.
Steamer Sydonia	235	Steamer Fanny Sparkawk	200
Post Boy	158	Norma	380
Wilcox	260	Col. Drennon	125
General Pike	367	Floating Palace	231
Pearl	184	White River	100
R. H. Winslow	385	Wash. McLean	142
J. H. Chenoweth	310	Barge Kate Hays	240
Alabama	298	Buckeye	328
Ruby	145	Cincinnatus	224
Louisa	394	Ion	230
Lewis Whiteman	317	Joe Torrence	211
Cusseta	201	Bob Green	100
J. P. Tweed	315		
Delaware	501	Total	8,896
R. M. Jones	198	1850–51, No. 31	8,206
Moses Greenwood	267	1849–50, No. 16	4,560
Major A. Harris	103	1848–49, No. 23	7,281
D. J. Day	212	1847–48, No. 29	10,233
James Robb	593	1846–47, No. 32	8,268
L. M. Kennett	598	1845–46, No. 25	7,657
Eliza	349		

It is seen that the business of the past season exceeds that of any previous year, except 1847–48, when the construction of boats was greatly stimulated by the extraordinary demand for steamboat tonnage, consequent upon the active foreign demand for breadstuffs, which existed at that time.

The construction of large boats at this port continued to be greatly retarded in consequence of the insufficiency of the Portland Canal. With the removal of this obstruction boats of the largest size will be constructed for the lower trade, which change would greatly facilitate the shipping interest—both as it regards boat owners and business men—and it would also greatly increase the business of builders, as the cost of constructing vessels below is necessarily greater than here. With regard to the efforts which have been made to secure a new canal at the falls of the Ohio, and the prospects of success in the undertaking we have spoken fully elsewhere.

Art. V.—COMMERCE: AND COMMERCIAL BIOGRAPHY.

"Still let thy mind be bent, still plotting where,
And when, and how, the business may be done."—HERBERT.

COMMERCE is not one of the Muses. A bargain is not so beautiful a thing as a poem, an oratorio, a picture, or a flight of eloquence. Yet the bargain holds no mean place in the frame-work of this present world. It is the first *material* bond of human society. By it, the individual acquires what he could not produce, and is relieved of what he could not employ.

By it, the best fruits of a skill possessed by one alone are distributed throughout the community; and the one, in serving the community, is advancing himself. By it, nation is linked with nation, in a thousand beneficial connections. By it, the dissimilar produce of climates lying wide apart, meet in a single home; the temperate zone gathering winter comfort from the pole, and summer luxury from the equator. Much as we should regret the departure from our world of the poem, the picture, or the oration, that would not leave mankind so utterly at a loss as the departure of the less beautiful bargain. Without it, we could never behold a shop, a public conveyance, a factory, a ship, a railway, or an extensive town.

"The Iliad for war," cries the author of 'Friends in Council,' "and the Odyssey for wandering; but where is the great domestic epic?" A very fit question. And where is the great Commercial epic? Arms, agriculture, love, travel and adventure, all have had their ample offerings of song; but, in spite of Dyer's "Fleece," and Granger's "Sugar Cane," and Phillips' "Cyder," with minor attempts to give Commerce a poetic status, it has thus far held on its course in the world without any notable obligation to the lyre. Any subject, in its vulgar aspect, appears below the dignity and interest of poetry; but once that it has been seen by the eye of the poet, and that his numbers have set it forth, all will recognize its higher aspects. Commerce, in its petty details, is very far from poetry; so is a brigade of recruits on drill, lifting up and setting down first one foot and then the other, as the sergeant cries, "Left! right!—left! right!" But Commerce, on the grand scale, is connected with the chief events of history, with all the noted terrestial discoveries, all the scenes of nature, all the spheres of enterprise, all the triumphs of invention, all the manners of the nations. It is by the light of Commerce, that far away on the misty frontier of history, we first catch sight of Phœnicia careering on the ancient seas; of Greece receiving her colonies and her lights; of Carthage, spreading enterprise around the west; of Ancient Britain emerging out of the unknown, and holding in her hand as her modest gift to the common store of mankind, a goodly supply of tin. It is Commerce that first tells us of bright rich lands in the distant east, beyond the range of western politics and wars; that brings thence gem, and spice, and silky robe, which, to northern eyes, look as if they came from some strange realm of light; that displaying these, stirs up her first-born offspring enterprise, to stretch her flight for their native lands; that, at length placing enterprise on her own wings, bears her across the wide Atlantic, and lets her gaze on a new continent; then, carrying her round the African cape, unfolds the real scene whence the great excitement came—the Taprobane, the Golden Chersonesus, the lands of cinnamon and peacocks; of pearl, ivory, and diamond; of muslin, sandal-wood, and silk. It is Commerce which presides at the inauguration of the new age, when Europe founds empires beyond the sea, and east and west meet together in new rivalries and friendships, till the devotees of trade cover every eminence of Columbia with foreign standards, and transfer the gorgeous realm of the Great Mogul to masters who confess the creed of the Nazarene. And sweeping her course from Tadmor to San Francisco, what magic communities spring up in her train! Solomon's fair city, in the wilderness; the queenly daughter of Alexander, by the mouths of the Nile; Venice, emerging from the flat isles of the Po, beyond the range of the barbarians who then overswept all Italy's ancient glory; Bussorah, springing up by the Tigris, under the auspices of the crescent; the Low Countries, rising out of the sea, gathering the wealth of the Eastern

Archipelago, striking down the banner of Spain, and lifting up the paralyzed arm of Protestant England; the city of Clive and Hastings by the ancient Ganges; with wonders endless on the bays and streams of yonder new world, and here, in our Lancashire vales, on our Yorkshire hills, or in the districts where the great wise Hand has stored up our iron and our coal.

Again, her course amid the paths of nature is not less wonderful than among those of history. Now she is overwhelmed in the simoom, now refreshed on the oasis; now hemmed in by the icebergs, now drenched by the water-spout; now lashed by the monsoon, now enchained by the calm; now steadily wafted by the trade-wind, now broken upon the rock; now joyfully riding in the haven, now away on the open main, where sky and sea alone can meet her eye; now hasting through the hollow tunnel, where cloud, and tree, and wave, are alike unseen; now chasing an invisible land by the mysterious track of the magnet; now reading in the conjunction, the transit, the eclipse, or the culminating sun, her instructions how to travel upon earth.

And all the feats whereof poetic rapture ever sang, are surely to be matched by those which are daily displayed in the service of Commerce. The huntsman chasing the tiger, elephant, lion, bear, ostrich, and kangaroo; the diver seeking pearl; the fisherman vanquishing the whale; the miner undoing the bolts and bars of nature's treasure-vaults; the mariner wrestling with both wind and sea; the engineer scooping the hill or spanning the strait; the caravan daring the sands; the fleet braving the waters; the bullock-train encountering the kloof; and all that ancient poets could find to originate ideas of Cyclops and supernatural powers, was little to the flaming wonders of one night's survey from Dudley Castle, or one day's study of the magic hives of Manchester.

Then Commerce mounts her upon every steed; now on the camel, patient as a thing inanimate; now on the ship, active as a thing of life, with the canvas for her wing, and the magnet for her scent; now on the fleet horse, now on the drowsy buffalo; now on the toiling wain, now on the flying engine; now on the steadfast mule, now on the quivering steamboat; now follows the fleet foot of the reindeer, now loiters on the dank canal; now skims in the slight canoe, now rolls in the thundering train; now whirrs on the wing of the carrier-pigeon, now clings to the writhing catamaran.

Commerce, too, has done much toward fulfilling its mission. It was ordained to bind man to man, province to province, and nation to nation, by the solid tie of common interests. "Had all nations found at home everything necessary and agreeable, it is impossible to conceive to what extent their mutual alienation might have proceeded. China and Japan help us to an idea of that which, in such a case, would have constituted nationality." But God gave each individual a relish for all that is charming in creation, yet distributed the productions which all enjoy, over the various zones of earth. Consequently, if the people of one land would partake of all they coveted, it was necessary to know and to deal with the people of other lands. Thence came that exchange of services, by which we now see the beverage of Englishmen depending on the rains in China, the wealth of many a Chinese on the markets of England, the bread of many a family in Manchester and Lowell on the weather in Carolina, the comfort of many a house in Leeds on the sheep of the Cape and Australia, the welfare of many a Spanish vine-grower on the rents of the English squire, the value of Norwegian pine on a vote at St. Stephen's, the prosperity of the Russian hemp-grower on the prosperity of England, and the robes of the Swedish ladies on the silk-worms of the south.

Commerce is the appointed medium for making that universal in benefit which is local in production; for preserving in men a sense of dependence upon other men; and thus, for giving the most favored nations a knowledge of the condition of others, an interest in their welfare, and a facility for that intercourse by which they may teach and elevate. It is not a spiritual or sentimental tie, but a material bond—a chain of gold by which the hand of Providence has linked the interests of all men in a connection, which the most carnal eye may see; but which, when recognized, tends to facilitate all the errands of Christianity among the nations. It was through Commerce, that Carey and Swartz were enabled to know China and to reach it; that Morrison had his path made to China; that the fetich-tree of Guinea and the kraal of South Africa were laid open to the eye of Christian piety; that the heart of zeal was told of cannibal feasts in New Zealand, and infant murder in the Polynesian isles. Of old, we see her ships and her dromedaries bearing the gold and the gems of the richest lands to lay them as her offering at the gate of God's glorious temple on Zion. Thus may she be seen often twining ties of international amity; often calling forth the enlightened to teach the dark; and now convening all earth's tribes under one pure dome of crystal. But often, too, she appears perverted from her purpose—stirring man against man with a pitiless rivalry; rousing nation against nation, for lucre; letting loose all the bloodhounds of war; and, alas! alas! the whole curse of the slave yell falls upon her head, the whole blood of the slave-trade lies upon her skirts. Surely, if Commerce could find her poet, the poet could find his materials. Yet we have no Commercial epic!

And, what is far more wonderful "in a nation of shopkeepers," we have no commercial biography. Our power abroad, our quiet at home, the stability of our government, the security of our towns, the value of our crops, are all so dependent upon Commerce, that, nationally, it is our first interest and our leading characteristic. Our merchants have been a race of vast endeavor and incredible achievement. They have built up a fabric that astounds us all, and our neighbors more than us. They have had, in their individual careers the most wondrous vicissitudes, the highest romance of real life. They have ever furnished the noblest, the meanest, the most unaccountable, the most exemplary, the most eccentric specimens of character. Many of them have influenced contemporary history more than reigning princes; many of them have displayed more comical peculiarities than the queerest oddity of fiction. There is scarce a town of note, to which some one of the race has not bequeathed a tradition of wonderful success, accompanied by hated parsimony, by envied sumptuousness, or by benevolence universally extolled. Here, you have a mansion and park; there, a set of almshouses; yonder, a church or school; each with its short but pregnant tale of a remarkable man. Yet, with such a race in the midst of us, and such tokens of what they have been doing, we seek in vain for the Lives of the British Merchants. Booksellers look uncommonly wise when you ask for a volume of commercial biography. Johnson has taken care of the poets; Allan Cunningham, of the artists; Campbell, of the lord chancellors; but no one has thought of the lord mayors, except, indeed, that worthy scribe who regaled our childhood with the pleasant story of "Whittington and his Cat." Divines, orators, men of science, of letters, of art, statesmen, generals, admirals, yea, even play-actors, have abounded in biographers; but the men who have reared factories more costly than a castle, who have giv-

en bread to more men than an ancient chieftain led out to war, who have created fleets that are sailing under every sky, who have raised an entire neighborhood from indigent inaction to gainful enterprise, who have presided over the destinies of a whole exchange, who have built up a financial power before which foreign cabinets often bend suppliantly. No one has cared to trace for commercial posterity, the course wherein these kings of Commerce struggled and achieved.

When biographers have taken up a commercial man, they have dropped business as a leaden thing, a dead weight that would sink the book; and so you float away with a fragrant cargo of philanthropy or public life. Mr. Knight gives us Gresham; but Gresham dealt in state finance and the high service of kings. In the edifying biography of Allen, you see much of the beauty of holiness, nothing of the stern struggle of profit and loss. In the almost faultless biography of Buxton, you are now and then permitted to have a distant peep of the brewery, far away in the recesses of Brick Lane; and one day you are positively taken inside the gates, but it is to eat beefsteaks with the premier and lord chancellor. In nearly all the religious biographies of those who have been in business, you see the inner man alone. Had Jacob's life fallen into the hands of a modern biographer, he would never have thought of telling us the contrivances by which he multiplied his cattle. That would not have been sufficiently intellectual, sufficiently ethereal,—or, indeed, sufficiently to Jacob's credit.

Arkwright produced an invention by which the British people have been more influenced politically, socially, and morally, than by all the expeditions in search of the northwest passage, all the orations of Curran, all the poems of Burns, all the pictures of West; yet, the aspiring apprentice who would trace that wonderful (I do not mean noble) man, must hunt in the "Beauties of Derbyshire," among the Cyclopœdias, or in the faithful annals of the "Gentleman's Magazine," for some faint outline of his career. Should he go to a circulating library and ask for the life of Arkwright, perhaps he may be favored with an offer of the life of Charles Matthews. The first Sir Robert Peel, from an ambitious laboring lad became a baronet, who employed fifteen thousand men, spoke often in Parliament, published political pamphlets, when the country was threatened with invasion gave ten thousand pounds to aid the overladen finances, raised half a regiment of volunteers, and bequeathed to England a son who became her most powerful statesman. Yet if a Lancashire boy feels as he felt, that he has the capability of raising himself to station and power, he may go to the library and instead of the life of the founder of the Peels be offered one of Lady Hester Stanhope. Rothschild began by buying prints at Manchester, and ended by wielding a power which was felt by every king in Europe. Yet the young merchant who would study his habits of business, may, possibly, if he inquire for his biography, be offered that of Theodore Hook.

Nothing tends to form the rising members of any profession, more than the biographies of those who have been eminent in the same line. The advantage of the finest models has long been before the eye of all the *alumni* of the theological, military, political, and artistic schools. Not so with the young men of Commerce. Those of their predecessors who have accomplished the greatest wonders are known only by a stray anecdote or a slight sketch. Every boy in the navy knows how Captain Broke took the Chesapeake; but what boy in the merchant service knows anything of the way in which Mr. Green created his superb mercantile fleet, with its noble accom-

paniment, his sailor's home? Every young author can learn precisely how many pounds a day Scott earned while writing the life of Bonaparte, how much Byron received from Murray for Manfred or for the Corsair; but though points so mercantile are worthy of record in the high regions of poetry, none can tell by what transactions, successes, and plans, the Barings built up their power. Turn where you will, you see wonders of Commerce, the origin of which is recent, the history of which would be instructive, but which are known only by flying traditions. At Leeds, you see Marshall's mills rising up as by magic, giving employment directly or indirectly to thousands, raising many to comfort, some to affluence, spreading competence and education around, giving that great borough a representative, and adorning the banks of Conistone and Ullswater with new mansions and demesnes. Yet, who of us can tell how that wonderful structure arose? But we are all well taught in the momentous fact that Lord Byron kept his figure slim by living on potatoes and vinegar. At Stockport, we see the mills of another Marshall, performing, in cotton, prodigies akin to those of the former in flax; yet what working-man who wants to rise, can con over the narrative of how the founder of that establishment began, and rose, and weathered the storm, and pressed on till he was the largest cotton manufacturer in Europe? But we are all instructed in the portentous truth, that when Oliver Goldsmith presented himself to a bishop for ordination, he was arrayed in scarlet breeches.

"Commerce is a dirty thing," we have heard literary lips say. Yes, in dirty hands, it is a dirty thing; and in rude hands, a rude thing; and in covetous hands, a paltry, pelfy thing. Nevertheless, it is a thing on which those who despise it are largely dependent. Without it, the author would have no market for his works; the intellectual gentleman, no bookshop; the grand lady, no sumptuous furniture; the fop, no finery; the idler, no dainties. And, what is far more important, it is the thing in which the bulk of our countrymen are spending their lives, and in which the bulk of future generations will spend their lives too,—the thing on which their earthly hopes will depend, in which their souls will be tempted, exercised, chained down to the dust, or prepared for immortal joy. If literature has any work in this world at all, it is to refine and elevate every sphere of human life; to be the companion, and friend, and teacher of every rank of men. It cannot therefore, without being faithless to its mission, pass lightly over that sphere wherein the most numerous and most energetic class of the community are trained in youth and tried in manhood. No theme is dull, if not handled with dullness; no theme low, if the writer exalt it. The pen of Wordsworth can chain you to the track of an old Cumberland beggar, until you almost count the nails in his footprint, and feel the dust from his meal wallet. The moss trooper, the smuggler, the bucaneer, are all chosen subjects of lofty authors; but to depict an actual man, whose life has been spent in the struggles, the reverses, the glossy frauds, and the sordid triumphs, of downright purchase and sale, seems a task far too practical for a pen from the ethereal plume of genius. Galt, even when undertaking to portray the curious life of Grant Thorburn, must needs enshroud it in the fiction of "Laurie Todd."

"Who would ever think of writing the life of the moiling pelf-worm, who works and wriggles through the dust, thinking of nothing but making his way!" True, who would? But who would think of writing the life of the common-place soldier, who wheels to right or left, loads, presents, fires, and fixes bayonet? or of the scribbler who pawns a book upon the world? or of the spouter who perpetrates dull speeches? The ignoble is ignoble in any

sphere; the great is great in any. Commerce, like other spheres, has had its marvelous men; and to the moralist, no class he could handle would afford such innumerable points on which important light might be shed upon life's actual ways, wherein the plodding and the practical are ever tempted to sell truth and integrity for gold. But from them the literati seem to have turned away. *The* TERRA INCOGNITA *of the learned, is ordinary life. Hunt's Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review, the Chronicles of the Stock Exchange, the History of Banking, the Bankers' Magazine*, and some prints devoted to economical questions, all show that literature has at length set out to explore that region of reputed desert.*

For business men, as a class, literature has done little. They can lay their hands on few books that are not likely to estrange them from their avocations just in proportion as they charm them. The young men of any other profession, besides the dry study of principles, may at the same time relax their minds and rouse up all their professional aspirations, by the lives of some who have trodden the very path on which they are starting, and found it the way to eminence. Not so the young merchant, of whatever grade. For the lives of the great, he must go out of his own line, and perhaps learn to despise it, when he might have learned its value and had all his views ennobled. Thus many business men dread books, just as literary men dread business. The two things have been at enmity. The literatus has looked down on the man of figures and facts, with counting-house taste and cash-box imagination. The merchant has looked down on the man of lofty ideas and light pockets, redundant in sentiment but lacking in common sense. You can hardly ever find a business man who has any just notion of the mercantile value of genius, or a literary man who has any appreciation of business. How seldom does a millionaire take any pains to encourage letters; or a scholar care to analyze the life of a merchant, whatever mental power he may have displayed, whatever impulse he may have given to the improvement of international or internal relations, whatever influence he may have exerted on the history of a kingdom! Consequently, little light has been shed into the recesses of Commerce from higher spheres. Men of business have been left to form their own codes of morals, with a millionth part of the criticism, from the erudite, on the moral correctness of this principle and of that mode of transaction, that has been spent on the letter "h," the Greek article, or the digamma. The politics of Commerce are now, per force, a favorite study; but the *morality of purchase and sale*, the effect of business upon character, the relation which art, science and literature bear to Commerce, are points on which business men are little indebted to those whose calling it is to instruct. Had it been otherwise, the mercantile class might have been great gainers, in enlarged views, in refined pleasure, in appreciation of the efforts and the utility of the higher orders of mind, and also in clear views of the moral principles of trade.

But more attention to practical life on the part of literary men, would be as rich in benefit to themselves as to men in business. In handling that subject they would grow wiser and would impart more wisdom. They would have an endless variety of theme. They would discover that fictitious

*When the *Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review* was started in 1839, some fourteen years since, there was not a single periodical devoted either to the Literature or Statistics of Commerce. Since its establishment in 1839, a Bankers' Magazine has been started in London, and another in this country. The present year (May, 1852) a monthly identical in name has made its appearance in London. We allude to "*Lawson's Merchants' Magazine, Statist, and Commercial Review.*"

characters were no more necessary to furnish interest, pleasure, amusement, surprise, and sadness, than fictitious landscapes are necessary to furnish mountain, forest, water, and sky. They would constantly find moral problems which might engage the most subtle dialectitians, and yet would interest the stock-jobber and the shopman.

To the lawyer who has constantly to handle commercial transactions, to the judge who has to pronounce upon them, to the statesman who has to balance conflicting mercantile interests, to the schoolmaster who has to train men for business life, a knowledge of all its aspects would be invaluable. But to the preacher, above all, who has constantly to deal with men immersed in trade, it is of an importance not to be calculated that he should know the life which all the week long his hearers are leading—its temptations, its glosses, its rivalries, its depressions, its joys; its anxieties, which cast the care of the soul into the shade; its ambitions, which outweigh the claims of truth and right. Ignorant of these, he must leave many to flounder in temptation whom he might be the means of extricating; many to be worried with care, when he might win their attention to better things; many to sink under their load, to whom he might have given a timely solace; many to go on in a course of gainful sin, whose conscience he might have reached and aroused. Too often, the man of business feels that the remarks from the pulpit only show that his case is not at all understood. There are few preachers of whom it could be said, as I have heard it said of Dr. M'Neile, that after some of his sermons, his hearers felt as if he had served his time to every trade in the town. Dr. Chalmers, too, endeavored worthily to bring the strong light of his Christian eloquence to elucidate the pathway which is ever so crowded, however it may be forgotten by the learned.

Art. VI.—MORAL VIEW OF RAILROADS.

In France they have a custom, not without its beauty and propriety, of publicly and formally giving names to the locomotives of a new Railway, on the opening of the line, and of pronouncing a religious benediction upon them. The ceremony, performed by a Bishop perhaps, or priests, in their canonicals, has the imposing effect which the Catholic Church knows how to give to its rites, and makes that practical appeal to the religious sympathies of men which it often has recourse to with effect. The same sense of the moral and even religious import of the railroad movement of the day, animated the eloquent preacher of the discourse before us, as it led to its delivery.*

In February last, the Railroad connecting Columbus, the capital of Ohio, with Cleveland, on Lake Erie, was completed. The Common Council of Cleveland, by resolution, invited the Legislature of the State, then in session, and the corporate authorities of Cleveland and Cincinnati, to unite with them in celebrating the completion of a work in which the three cities are directly interested, placing them as it does in direct communication, and furnishing

* A discourse delivered on Sabbath morning, February 23d, 1851, on the occasion of the opening of the Cleveland and Columbus Railroad, by Rev. S. C. Aiken, D. D., Pastor of the First Presbyterian Church.

a line across the entire State, from the Ohio to the Lakes. The Legislature accordingly adjourned, and the first train of cars passed over the road on Friday the 21st of February, with a large party, legislative, municipal and official, and many ladies and gentlemen besides. The guests celebrated on the following day at once the completion of this great work, and the birthday of Washington, whose practical spirit would have delighted could it have "seen this day" in such public works as the Columbus and Cleveland Railroad more than in the triumphs of the field. The guests of Cleveland remained until the Monday following. Dr. Aiken, the worthy pastor of the 1st Presbyterian Church, full of the memories of a previous glorious occasion, when, on the completion of the Erie Canal, he preached before DE WITT CLINTON and the Commissioners, determined to "improve" the event, with which every mind was full, in his sermon on Sunday, by directing the thoughts which would have been likely to wander from any theme not connected with the event of the hour, to the moral and religious bearings of that event. How ably and forcibly he has pointed out these bearings of the Railroad enterprises of the day, our readers shall judge for themselves from our ample extracts. Nor in considering his subject from the higher and more abstract points of view which are natural to the pulpit, does Dr. Aiken lose sight of matters of more direct practical importance. While urging the value of Railroads as promotive of peace among men, union between States, as levelers in the best of ways by raising the low, he does not forget to urge the opportunity they afford to aid the cause of Temperance along the lines of Railroad and among those employed, and the duty and policy of a proper observance of the Sabbath by Railroad Companies. There is one point suggested by this discourse which we wish to advert to, by way of contributing our quota to the moral improvement of the occasion, *and* preaching *one* lay sermon on Railroads.

Commerce builds ships and railroads, and traverses the earth on the wings of wind and steam, ransacking every corner to discover the wants of mankind and to satisfy them. It studies the necessities of every nation and clime, and seeks to supply them. If the motive of the merchant were a purely disinterested one, if his single aim were the good of men, in what way could it be more effectually promoted than by relieving the wants of every clime and people, and supplying its luxuries, by multiplying its comfort and enjoyments from the surplus stores of other portions of the globe? Now it is not necessary to disguise the fact, that the primary motive of the merchant is not a disinterested one. He does not thus toil and travel out of pure care for his fellow men. It is his interest to supply their wants; his motive is gain. But what is there to prevent the merchant from combining with the calculations of the ledger, the considerations of profit and loss, those higher considerations of unity, peace and brotherhood of nations which his calling so nobly subserves, subserves none the less because its primary motive is more selfish? The merchant should make it a pleasure, as it is his interest, to labor in the cause of unity and concord among the nations. He is at cosmopolite by profession, let him be one in heart and spirit also. To a merchant of this stamp, a thousand opportunities of doing good present themselves in the course of trade. A well known China merchant of the city of New York, lately deceased, always gave free passages in his ships to missionaries going out to China, and brought them back also, free of expense. This man was a merchant and something more, or rather he pursued his calling in that high spirit which made it an agent of unity and good

will among men, and a missionary of civilization. So when men build their steamships and their Railroads which are to unite nations, and bind the ends of continents together, they may look to their dividend as sharply as they please, but let them give some thought to these higher purposes of civilization also, which their enterprises subserve; let them be ever prompt and on the watch to seize upon and profit by the numerous incidental opportunities afforded of promoting the good of the race; and let them remember that the great process of human progress which they are perhaps the unconscious instruments and agents of, is a greater and a better thing than the largest fortune of gold and silver ever got together.

"The chariots shall rage in the streets: they shall justle one against another in the broad ways; they shall seem like torches: they shall run like the lightnings."—NAHUM ii, 4.

In a moral and religious point of view, as well as social and commercial, to me there is something interesting, solemn, and grand in the opening of a great thoroughfare. There is sublimity about it—indicating not only march of mind and a higher type of society, but the evolution of divine purposes, infinite, eternal—connecting social revolutions with the progress of Christianity and the coming reign of Christ.

To overlook such an event—to view it only in its earthly relations, would be to overlook a movement of Providence, bearing directly upon the great interests of morality and religion—the weal or woe of our country, and of unborn millions. It is the duty of Christians, and especially of Christian ministers, to watch the signs of the times—to see God, and lead the people to see Him, in all the affairs of the world, whether commercial, political or religious, in the varied aspects in which He is presented to our view in His word.

The history of roads is one of the best commentaries upon the intellectual and social state of society. Of course, it will not become the time and place, to go into it any further than is needful as preliminary to my subject.

A road is symbol of civilization—the want of it, a symbol of barbarism. By its condition we may ascertain, with considerable accuracy, the degree of the one or of the other. "Let us travel," says the Abbe Raynal, "over all the countries of the earth, and wherever we shall find no facilities of traveling from city to town, and from a village to a hamlet, we may pronounce the people to be barbarous." The government is weak—the inhabitants poor and ignorant. The road, then, is a physical index of the condition and character of any age or nation. Viewed from this stand-point, its history may correct one of our errors, and lead us to see, that we are not quite so far in advance of antiquity as we are apt to imagine.

If we look back to the earliest period of the world of which we have any record, we find that roads were the dividing line between civilization and barbarism. The first country, of which we have any definite knowledge, distinguished for the arts and sciences, was Egypt. Could we read its lost history, we should see that under the reign of its Pharaohs, it rose to a pitch of civilization and grandeur of which, probably, we have no conception. The fact is indicated by its pyramids and magnificent remains, which clearly show its former glory. If Thebes had its hundred gates, it is likely, that it had also its paved and spacious avenues leading from it into every part of the kingdom, on which the chariot of its kings and nobles rolled in splendor.

Nor was the Jewish commonwealth without its roads, constructed in the most durable manner, under the reign of Solomon. Those leading to and from the cities of refuge, have probably never been excelled. But in the uncivilized surrounding nations, we hear nothing of roads.

Mark also the Roman empire at the period of its highest prosperity and grandeur. The famous "Appian Way," celebrated by Horace, built three hundred years before Christ, remains of which are still visible after the lapse of more than twenty centuries, is familiar to every reader of history. Two-thirds of it, from Capua to Brundusium, were built by Julius Cæsar—and formed one of the

most splendid memorials of that Emperor's reign. Its entire length was nearly four hundred miles—graded so far as practicable to a level—paved with hewn stone in the form of hexagonal blocks, laid in a durable cement—with a surface spacious and smooth. Besides this, there were other roads, constructed by different emperors, such as the Salernian, Flaminian, Ostian, and Triumphal, leading from the capital—one of which extended four thousand miles from Antioch on the south, to Scotland on the north—at one place tunneling a mountain of rocks,* at another, stretching over ravines and rivers by bridges and aqueducts, interrupted only by the English channel and the Hellespont.

Nor were the Romans so greatly behind us as to speed. History records the fact, that "one Cesarius went post from Antioch to Constantinople—six hundred and sixty-five miles, in less than six days. The modern traveler in his rail-car smiles at the statement; but he forgets, that the Roman horse was neither fire nor steam, and that he is indebted for his speed to the discovery of a new and wonderful power of which the ancients knew nothing.

Now turn and consider the old Saxons. Look at the Feudal age of comparative barbarism, when each community or county had its Baron and castle, built upon inaccessible rocks;—when the people dwelt in walled cities, with sentinels upon the towers;—when there were no roads—no wheeled vehicles, except a few, and those of the most cumbersome kind;—when the mode of travel was on foot or horseback, through fields and streams and forests. Then it was, that the arts, sciences, and religion were at a dead stand. There were no ducts for Commerce—no life or motion. Day and night, the people lived in fear of robbers, and their only hope of safety lay in having no intercourse with one another, nor with distant neighborhoods and provinces. So it has always been. So it is now. Point me to a country where there are no roads, and I will point you to one where all things are stagnant—where there is no Commerce except on a limited scale—no religion, except a dead formality—no learning, except the scholastic and unprofitable. A road is a sign of motion and progress—a sign the people are living and not dead. If there is intercourse, social or commercial, there is activity; "advancement is going on—new ideas and hopes are rising. All creative action, whether in government, industry, thought, or religion, creates roads," and roads create action.

To an inquisitive mind, it is extremely interesting and instructive to mark the progress of mechanical invention. To one accustomed to trace effects to their causes, it is more than interesting. He sees something besides human agency at work in the provision of materials—in the adaptation of means to ends—in the wisdom, order, and regularity of general laws, which the practical mechanic has learnt to accommodate to his own purposes. But he is not the originator of those laws, nor of the materials on which he operates. He has discovered that certain agents will serve particular ends. Of these agents he skillfully avails himself, and the result he aimed at is produced.

The elements of water-power have been in existence since the world was made; and yet, there doubtless was a time when there was no water-wheel applied to a dashing current, to propel machinery. Why did not the human mind grasp at once the simple law, and dispense with animal power to grind meal for daily bread? On the principles of philosophy, this question is not so easily answered. To say that mind is slow in its development, does not solve the difficulty. From the earliest ages, it has accomplished wonders in the arts. It has built cities and pyramids—aqueducts and canals—calculated eclipses and established great principles in science.

The truth is, there is a providence in mechanical invention as well as in all the affairs of men. And when God has purposes to accomplish by this invention, he arouses some active spirit to search for the laws already in existence, and to arrange the materials with reference to the end.

In past ages, for all practical purposes, the world has done well enough with

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* The underground tunnel of Pozzuoli, near Naples, is said to have been half a league, or, in American measure, one mile and a half. The passage was cut through solid rock fifteen feet square,

the mechanical powers it possessed. The water-wheel has moved the machinery attached to it. The stage-coach has trundled its passengers along, contented and happy with the slow pace, though not always convenient or comfortable, because they had no better mode of conveyance. The merchant has cheerfully committed his goods to the sail boat, because he knew of no more powerful agent than the winds. But the human mind has received a new impulse. It is waked up to unwonted energy. It is filled with the great idea of progress. It is leaving the things that are behind, and pressing onward.

Nothing has contributed more to wake up the mind from its sleep of ages—to draw out its powers and to set it on the track of discovery, than the invention of the steam-engine. This event occurred about eighty years since, and the name of the inventor is inscribed on the tablet of immortality. It was no freak of chance—no random thought of human intellect, unaided by that Infinite Intelligence, at whose disposal is all matter and mind; and who, in his own time and way, makes them subserve his own purposes. Was Bezaleel raised up by God and filled with wisdom "to devise cunning work—to work in gold and silver and brass"—to aid Moses in building the tabernacle? Was Hiram afterward endowed with great mechanical skill in the erection of Solomon's temple? So was Watt. God raised him up to invent the steam-engine; and, when "he gave it to mankind in the form in which it is now employed for countless uses, it was as if God had sent into the world a legion of strong angels to toil for man in a thousand forms of drudgery, and to accomplish for man a thousand achievements which human hands could never have accomplished, even with the aid of such powers of nature as were previously known and mastered. The earth with the steam-engine in it, and with all the capabilities which belong to that mighty instrument for aiding the industry and multiplying the comforts of mankind, is a new earth,—far better fitted in its physical arrangements for the universal establishment of the kingdom of Christ, or in other words, for the universal prevalence of knowledge, liberty, righteousness, peace, and salvation."

The application of steam, as a mechanical power, to locomotion on land and water, forms a new era in invention, and in the history of the world. Twenty years ago, the first successful experiment with the locomotive, was made between Liverpool and Manchester. Now, we can hardly compute the number of railways. Forty-three years ago the Hudson was first successfully navigated by a steamer. In the summer of 1838 the Atlantic ocean was crossed for the first time by vessels exclusively propelled by steam power. Now look at the progress. The steamer plows our navigable rivers, our great lakes, our coasts; and asserts its supremacy over all other craft, from the Pacific to the Atlantic, and from the Atlantic to the Indian ocean. The changes in the moral and physical condition of our world, by means of this wonderful agency, are what no one can witness, without mingled emotions of admiration and wonder. That the hand of the Almighty is in it; that he has some good and grand design to accomplish through its instrumentality, must be evident to all who believe Him to be the moral Governor of the world. Were a new planet to start into existence, I should as soon think it the result of a fortuitous conglomeration of atoms, as to disconnect the present revolutions by steam, from the wisdom and power of God.

Some good people, I am aware, look with a suspicious eye upon the iron-horse. They fancy there is a gloomy destiny in it—a power to subvert old and established customs: to change the laws and ordinances of God and man; to introduce moral and political anarchy, ignorance and impiety, and to make our degenerate race more degenerate still.

Now, I am not troubled with such specters. I look for evils to be multiplied with the increase of travel. But order will reign, law will reign, religion will reign, because there will be an increase also of counteracting agents. If the effect should be the increase of wealth only, we might well predict fearful consequences. To look upon the railroad simply as an auxiliary to Commerce; as a great mint for coining money; is to take but a superficial and contracted view of it. If we would contemplate it in all its bearings, we must consider it as a new and vast power, intended by Providence to act upon religion and education; upon the civilization and character of a nation in all the complicated interests of its

social organism. This is a great subject, and while I have neither time or ability to do it justice, I can see in it matter that may well employ, and will yet employ the best heads and hearts which God has bestowed on mortals. Without anticipating evils, there are certain benefits to follow, which will prove more than an antidote. To name a few—

The increase of Commerce and wealth is a consideration which I leave to the political economist. In no country should they be overlooked, much less in our own. Wealth is power, and when properly used, is a source of unspeakable good.

As to Commerce, there are two aspects, aside from its bearing on wealth, in which I love to contemplate its connection with the rail-road.

One is, as a preventive of war. This remark applies more to Commerce as now conducted by steam on the ocean. It is bringing the nations together, and making them feel the sympathetic throbbings of one family heart, of one great brotherhood. Would the idea of a World's Fair have been conceived, had it not been for steam navigation? It was a noble thought! Let the people of every tongue, and kindred, and nation from under the heaven assemble. Let them gather under the same magnificent crystal palace, and through its transparent dome, raise their eyes to the same God, and feel that he has made them all of one blood, and united them, by one common tie of interest and affection, to the same father and to one another; and we may expect to hear that a motion has been made and carried by acclamation, to "beat their swords into plow-shares and their spears into pruning-hooks."

The other view of steam Commerce is, its tendency to unite more closely the States; bringing them into more intimate relations, and subjecting them to the influence of mutual intercourse.

Owing to emigration, we are becoming a heterogeneous people; unlike in habits, language and religion, and scattered over a vast territory, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. How States, formed out of such a population, thus widely dispersed, can be held together and consolidated, is a question vitally interesting and important. One thing is certain; it cannot be done by law, nor by military power alone. Sectional interests and jealousies will spring up against which the Constitution and brute force will form no barrier. Under circumstances so unprecedented in the history of nations, our only hope, it seems to me, lies in the general diffusion of religion and education, and in the kind and frequent intercourse which the railway is calculated to promote,—bringing distant portions of the country into the relation of neighborhoods, and thus removing sectional jealousies and animosities, and inspiring mutual confidence and affection. It is for this reason, as well as others, I rejoice in the construction of a railroad, connecting us, I may say, with the Southern States. The influence, according to all the laws of our social being, cannot fail to be peaceful and happy. On a little better acquaintance, our brethren of the South will feel more kindly towards us, and we towards them; and, possibly, some mistakes and misapprehensions, on both sides, will be corrected and removed. By means of recent intercourse with foreigners, the Chinese begin to think it doubtful whether the earth is a plane, and they in the center of it, and all upon the outside barbarians. By a law of our nature, minds in contact assimilate, and, for this reason, we hope to see good result from the intermingling of the North with the South; and, could a railroad be extended to the Pacific, it would do more to promote union in the States—to circulate kind feelings—to establish our institutions in California, Oregon, Utah, and New Mexico, and to consolidate our glorious confederacy, than all the legislation of Congress from now until doomsday. A new and vast trade would at once spring up between the parent States and those more recently formed, also with the numerous islands of the Pacific, and with the populous regions of eastern Asia. In its tendency all legitimate Commerce is peaceful and happy, because its benefits are mutual and reciprocal. Every new railway, therefore, constructed in our country, is another link in a chain of iron, binding the States together.

Another benefit. In one respect, the railroad is a leveler, but it levels up, not down. Its tendency is to place the poor on a level with the rich, not by abolishing the distinction of property—it is no socialist—not by depressing the

ich, but by elevating all to the enjoyment of equal advantages. It is like the Press. Before the art of printing, the poor had no books. Now, the possession of books is no very distinctive mark of wealth. Manufactories are leveling in the same way, by bringing to the fire sides and wardrobes of the poor, articles of comfort and luxury, which once were attainable only by the rich. So with the railway. The poor can travel with as much ease, rapidity, and cheapness as the rich. They are not doomed, as formerly, to spend life within the limits of a parish or a city; but, can take their seat beside the millionaire, breathe the pure air of the country, recreate and recruit health and spirits in its valleys and on its mountain tops. But there are other advantages still greater.

One is the general diffusion of education. "Many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased." The motion of the body quickens the mind. The rapid passing of objects, the active interchange of commodities in commercial intercourse, is attended with the interchange of ideas. Then, possibly, such active intercourse may be unfavorable to education. In a passion for travel, there is danger of cultivating the senses more than the intellect. Should knowledge degenerate into mere sight-seeing, and become superficial, the effect will be deplorable. But as an offset to this evil, which we hardly anticipate, we see everywhere the multiplication of schools and a disposition in the people, and especially in our rulers, to patronize and encourage education. Happily for the world, rulers are beginning to see, that they are invested with power not for themselves, but for the people; that the interest of one is the interest of both; and, that in shaping their policy so as to advance general knowledge, industry, equal rights, and privileges, they are laying a broad foundation in the intelligence and affection of the masses for permanent peace and prosperity. In political science, this is a great advance from the old gothic notion that God made the people for the king and the king for himself. This branch of my subject I cannot close better, than in the words of an eloquent writer. Speaking of governments, he says:—"Having it for their problem to make every man as valuable as possible to himself and to his country, and becoming more and more inspired, as we may hope, by an aim so lofty, every means will be used to diffuse education, to fortify morals and favor the holy power of religion. This being done, there is no longer any danger from travel. On the contrary, the masses of society, will by this means, be set forward continually in character and intelligence. As they run, knowledge will be increased. The roads will themselves be schools, for here they will see the great world moving, and feel themselves to be a part of it. Their narrow, local prejudices will be worn off, their superstitions forgotten. Every people will begin to understand and appreciate every other, and a common light be kindled in all bosoms."

The effects to result from the great facilities for travel, in regard to the general interests of religion, is another subject on which a large portion of community feel a deep interest. And well we may. Whatever tends to loosen the bonds that bind us to our Maker, tends also to loosen the bonds that bind society together—to uproot law and order—to introduce anarchy and misrule, guilt and wretchedness.

There is one fact, however, which encourages us to hope that the influence of railways will be favorable to religion. As I have already said, they mark a new era in the world. They are destined to effect a great revolution in all the departments of society. Now, if we look back on the past half century, we see nothing but a succession of revolutions in government, in the arts and sciences, in the condition of political and social life; and yet, where is there one that has not immediately or remotely favored the extension of Christianity—given prosperity and power to evangelical truth, and caused the heart of Christian philanthropy to beat more intensely for the happiness of universal being? On that one, I cannot place my eye. It is not in memory. It is not on record. Wrongs deep and dreadful there have been, and are still; but every attempt to perpetuate them, as is obvious to the nice observer, is working out, slowly it may be, but surely, their removal.

When railroads were first projected, it was predicted, and not without some reason, that they would demolish the Christian Sabbath. But what has been the result? So far as ascertained, I confess I see no occasion for alarm. True, this sacred season of rest, given to man by his Creator, and which his physical nature imperiously demands—being able, as has often been demonstrated, to do more labor with it than without it—is shamefully desecrated by steamers, rail-cars and other modes of conveyance. But, so far as railroads are concerned, experience both in this country and in England is gradually deciding in favor of remembering the Sabbath day to keep it holy. If correctly informed, several lines are already discontinued and others will be. Wherever the voice of the community favors it, Directors are not backward to let their men and enginery remain quiet on this day; for it is found that nothing is gained and much lost by running. All the business can be done in six days of the week; while not only one-seventh part of the expense is saved, but the hands employed are refreshed and invigorated by rest, and better prepared with safety and fidelity to discharge their duty. Thus the evil is working out its own remedy. The truth is, the law of the Sabbath is written, not only in the Bible, but upon the constitution of man; and such are the arrangements of Providence that it cannot be violated without incurring loss. The penalty will follow, and if religion does not enforce obedience, self-interest will. All that is necessary is, to direct the attention of considerate men to the subject, and leave it with conscience and common sense to decide. This done, I have no fears of the result.

Another thing. When a railway is managed as it should be, and as I confidently believe ours will be, it is found to be an important auxiliary to the cause of temperance. In a concern involving so great an amount of life and property, it is worse than folly to employ men who are not strictly temperate. The public expect and have a right to demand, for the sake of safety if nothing else, the most scrupulous adherance on the part of directors to the principles of temperance, in the appointment of their agents. This will inspire confidence in the traveling community, and secure patronage; and if no higher motive actuates, its influence will be good, at least upon a large class of persons necessarily connected with such an establishment.

But it is in the power of directors—and that power can be easily exercised, especially at the first start of a railroad—to extend the healthful influence of temperance along the whole line; operating benignly upon the population at large, through which it passes. They can and ought to control the eating-houses and depots maintained for its accommodation; and if this be so, the prohibited use of intoxicating liquor in them, by its example, will do good to the whole State. If this wise and practicable measure be adopted, as it has been on some other roads, and with entire success, it can readily be seen how powerfully it will aid the cause of temperance. For years past, one prolific source of intemperance has been the taverns and grog-shops upon our great thoroughfares. Persons who drank but little at home, under the excitement or fatigue of traveling have thought it pleasant if not necessary to indulge in the intoxicating cup, especially where none but strangers could be witnesses to their delinquency. As these sources will in a great degree cease to corrupt, if others are not opened on the railroad, incalculable good will result to the public. May we not hope that the noble stand will be taken and maintained, and that our railway, so big with promise to other interests, will apply its mighty fires and forces to dry up the poisonous fountains of intemperance? It will be an achievement worthy of the age. It will reflect honor upon our State. Its example will tell upon other railroads and upon the nation. In a few years, it will save money enough to repay the building of the road. It will scatter unnumbered blessings of contentment, peace, prosperity, and religion over our great commonwealth!

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INSURANCE—TOTAL LOSS OF MERCHANDISE.

In the Second District Court, New Orleans, March, 1852; Judge Buchanan, presiding. Rugley, Blair & Co. *vs.* Sun Mutual Insurance Company.

Judge Buchanan.—The claim of plaintiff is for a total loss of one hundred and twenty-five bales of cotton, insured in defendant's office, and valued at $60 per bale.

The cotton was shipped on board the schooner Velasco, at Matagorda, bound for New Orleans, on the 20th June, 1851.

On the 24th June, at 8 o'clock, A.M., the Velasco went to sea, and proceeded on her voyage with a head wind. On the 25th June, at 1 P. M., having tried the pumps and found they would not suck, and the water gaining fast from a leak, as was afterwards discovered, the master of the vessel put her head about and made for the bar of Matagorda Bay, his point of departure; which he reached at 9 o'clock next morning, the 26th June, and reached the wharf at Decro's Point, Matagorda Bay, at 11 o'clock, making just twenty-two hours from the first discovery of the leak and change of course.

The vessel being completely water-logged, was beached at Decro's Point within a few yards of the wharf, and her cargo landed. On the 3d of July, a survey was called upon the cargo of the Velasco, by a notary public.

On the same day, the surveyors appointed by the notary gave it as their opinion and report, that the cargo of the Velasco should be sold at auction, as advertised, for the benefit of all concerned. On the same day the cargo of the Velasco was sold at auction, including the one hundred and twenty-five bales insured by plaintiffs.

On the same day, the master of the vessel, and Thomas Decro, who had furnished hands to assist in getting the Velasco from the bar to the landing, entered into an agreement to appoint arbitrators to assess salvage to the said Decro for his said services.

On the same day, the arbitrators reported a salvage of 33⅓ per cent on the net amount of the sales at auction; and assessed the schooner Velasco, as she lay, at $2,000 for her portion or contribution of salvage. The net proceeds of sales of the one hundred and twenty-five bales of cotton, insured by plaintiffs, being $1,766 31 as per average statement in evidence, the salvage on the same was according to the award. $588 77.

The said cotton was purchased (or rather one hundred and twenty-two bales of the same) by one John Rugely, and shipped to New Orleans by the steamer Fuselier and the schooner Star, for account of the purchaser.

The plaintiffs made a demand upon the defendants for indemnity, who, on the 31st July, 1851, replied that they could not recognize the claim, because the sale of the cotton insured, and the other proceedings at Decro's Point, were contrary to the terms and rules of insurance.

On the 6th of August, 1851, plaintiffs made an abandonment in writing as for a total loss; which was rejected by the defendants. And this suit was brought on the same day.

In their answer filed, the defendants take the same grounds as in their note of the 31st of July; and in addition, plead unseaworthiness.

In my recapitulation of dates above—as to the time of the first discovery of the leak, the change of course, and the arrival of the Velasco at Decro's landing on her return to port—I have followed the protest. I must remark that there is, however, a singular discrepancy from this date of the latter event, in some portions of the evidence. For I find that the copy of the notice of survey on the vessel, furnished by the notary, is dated the 24th of June, when, according to the protest, the vessel was at sea; and the average statement declared that

the Velasco was beached on Decro's Point the 25th June, 1851, although the protest makes out that event to have occurred on the 26th.

The policy of insurance sued upon, contains the following clause:—

"The insured are not to abandon on account of the boat grounding, or being otherwise detained; and in case of the loss of the boat or vessel, or part of her cargo, or of damage to the whole or part thereof, it shall be the duty of the master or agent of said vessel to forward such part of the cargo, as shall be saved in a condition fit to be shipped to its port of destination, by the best conveyance obtainable at the place where the shipped goods may be, or at any other place within a reasonable distance; and the enhanced expense thereof, not exceeding the amount insured, shall fall on the insurers."

The practicability of procuring a conveyance to forward the cotton in question, is proved by the fact, that the cotton was forwarded to New Orleans, its port of destination, within a few days after the auction sale, by the purchaser at said sale.

There is proved to have been a weekly communication by steamboat between Matagorda Bay and New Orleans; and the proceedings of the sale of the cotton under the circumstances, appear to me to be a manifest violation of the clause in the policy copied.

Judgment for defendants with costs.

PLAINTIFF TO RECOVER FOR THE SERVICES OF HIS MINOR SON WHO SHIPPED IN DEFENDANT'S VESSEL ON A WHALING VOYAGE.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts; before Judge Bigelow. John Carnes *vs.* John Parkhurst, *et al.*

This was an action of assumpsit brought against the defendants, owners of the ship Kutosoff, by the plaintiff to recover the sum alleged to be due him on account of the services of his minor son, who shipped in the defendant's vessel, and was absent on a whaling voyage thirty-four months. The plaintiff commenced his action May 10th, 1851, three days after the arrival of the Kutosoff, and claimed in his writ to recover at the rate of $16 a month for the whole time, amounting to $544.

It was contended by the counsel for the plaintiff that the father might recover the value of the son's services at home to himself, or might elect to take the lay the boy earned at sea as evidenced by the shipping articles; and that in the latter case no deduction whatever could be made for advances, necessaries supplied the minor, or ship charges of any kind, as none of these were binding upon the father, but that he was entitled to the gross lay.

The defendants contended that the father, in this action, was only entitled to recover of them the actual value of the services of the minor while in their employ, he having disavowed the special contract in the shipping articles, and that they were entitled to deduct from this gross value the customary charges made in whaling voyages, and also such sums of money as were paid by them for necessaries furnished the minor preparatory to and during the voyage.

There was also a question raised as to an implied assent and ratification on the part of the father. On this point the evidence was that the minor ran away from Lowell where his father resided, and remained a few weeks in Boston without any employment, and that his father knew he was in Boston, and then shipped at an office in the city for a whaling voyage. That his father came down to New Bedford after the boy, and arrived some six hours after the ship sailed, and neither assented nor dissented from the shipment when made known to him. Defendants contended that he was bound to dissent therefrom, so as to give them an election to send for the boy and return him.

The case was argued by B. F. Hallett, Esq., for the plaintiff, and R. C. Pitman, Esq., for the defendants.

Bigelow, J., charged in substance as follows:—This is an action by the father for his son's services. It is an equitable action. It is not an action for tort. In an action for enticement, which is an action for tort, you would not be limited as you now are by the worth of the son's services. But in this case, by declaring

in assumpsit, the father recognizes an implied contract. He cannot recover damages for any wrong, if there be any in the case. It is wholly immaterial whether there exist any wrongful practice in New Bedford, or not. The father asks the value of the minor's services. He can only recover that. It is of no consequence in this action, why the defendants shipped the minor. If he had chosen to bring an action for enticing or harboring the minor, and the facts would support the action, the rule would have been different.

As to the preliminary question of assent on the part of the father, which has been raised in the case, the burden of the proof is on the defendants. It is undoubtedly true that if a father stands by and having power to dissent, does not, the law will infer he means to assent. It does not appear that the father distinctly assented or dissented when at New Bedford. The defendants contend that he should have demanded that the boy should be returned at Fayal. But there is no evidence that the father was told by them that the ship would stop there, or that he knew that fact. If you can infer any assent on the part of the plaintiff from the evidence, and that he knew what the contract was, he is bound to it, but the defendants must satisfy you on this point.

As to the measure of damages in this case, my opinion is, that the value of the services at sea rather than the previous services of the minor at home should be taken as the standard. The legal rule is, the value of the services at the time and place and under the circumstances under which they were rendered. The value of the *precise services rendered*—that is what the father sues for.

He is not bound by the contract. The lay given in the shipping articles is only evidence of the fair value of such a boy's services. It is not conclusive. And on the other hand, as the contract is not to govern, you may take into consideration the conduct of the boy and deduct anything for unfaithfulness if you deem it right. You are to pass on the whole question of the value of his services.

If you give the boy 1-190, which is what the captain testifies is the usual lay in such a ship for green hands, his share will amount to $315. That is the gross value of his services, if you take the standard. Whatever sum you assume, from this you are to deduct such sums as have been paid by defendants for necessaries furnished during this period, either as outfits or as supplies from the slop chest. This rests on the ground, that the father can recover in this action precisely what he could if he had shipped the minor himself, without any express contract.

As he is to rely on this kind of service, you are to consider that he is relieved from furnishing board and clothing during this time. In estimating the value of the sea service, you are to consider what is needed to support the minor while in it. The kind of employment determines the amount and nature of necessaries. Inasmuch as the father recovers wages based on expenses, this is equitable. As he claims benefits he must take burdens of the service. Wages are graduated according to these necessaries. You must deduct then what the defendants have paid, that the father ought to have paid, so that he may have the same as if he had sent the boy himself.

But the law only allows necessaries. You must judge what is reasonably necessary. The father is not bound by the orders or the bills. Only what is reasonable as to kind, quantity and prices of articles furnished, can be allowed. Certainly some articles are not necessaries, and the money furnished on the voyage can hardly be called necessary, though this question must be submitted to you.

It is claimed there should be another deduction on account of the conduct of the boy and his temporary desertion, and this on the ground that the services of such a boy are less valuable. You are to take all the evidence into consideration and say whether any deduction ought to be made from what boys usually have.

The defendants also claim that certain deductions should be made for fitting and discharging ship, etc., and for medicine chest. This is claimed on the ground that it is the universal understanding that these charges are to be made against a seaman's voyage, and that his lay is graduated with this understanding. If this be so, it is for you to say how much you will allow. You are to consider and pass upon the reasonableness of these charges. The outfitting of a whaler undoubtedly requires much more expense than that of a merchant vessel. But af-

ter all you may think it comes back to the understanding; and if persons are always shipped with the understanding that these charges are to be made, it is for you to say whether you are not to take the customary amounts in estimating the value of services according to the lay usually given. After all, this is a practical question, and in my opinion the best tribunal to settle it is a jury of twelve men. Under the rules laid down, you are to say what the real value of the minor's services were; and then add interest from the date of the writ.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff in the sum of $189 60.

CLAIMS FOR DIFFERENCE IN VALUE OF COTTON SOLD AS "ORDINARY."

Decision of New Orleans Chamber of Commerce; before a Special Committee. Present, Chas. Briggs, Second Vice President, Messrs. M. Greenwood, Wm. Mure, W. S. Pickett, G. A. Holt. Prehn, Clegg & Co. *vs.* Wright, Williams & Co.

This is a claim for £90 7s. 3d. sterling, the alleged amount of difference in value between ten bales, part of a lot of sixty-nine bales of cotton sold as "ordinary" by defendants to plaintiffs; but which, the latter assert, turned out to be false packed and deceptive, and the sale of which resulted in a loss of the sum now claimed.

It appears by the documents submitted to the committee, that the whole purchase, of which the ten bales in question formed a part, consisted of two hundred and forty-three bales, which were classed by the broker, Mr. Schmidt, as follows: Twenty-three bales fully middling, sixty-eight good middling, seventy-three good ordinary, sixty-nine ordinary, six stained, and four low ordinary.

The plaintiffs assert that the spinners in England for whom the cotton was purchased, on opening the sixty-nine bales of ordinary, found the ten bales complained of fraudulently packed, so as purposely to deceive the buyer—a very small quantity of the good cotton being on the top and bottom, while the bulk of the bale was gin dirt and dust not worth the carriage.

The plaintiff's claim is supported by a certificate of the foreman of the spinners for whom the cotton was purchased, who declares these ten bales to be false packed, and worth only twopence half penny per pound, while the remainder of the lot was worth seven pence per pound; also by a certificate to the same effect by a person named Richard Wright, who is described by the plaintiffs as a respectable merchant in the trade. This latter certificate is not sworn to, and there is no consular certificate to any of the papers. The only testimony offered on either side is that of Mr. Schmidt the plaintiffs' broker, who bought the cotton, and the samples drawn by him at the time of the purchase, together with the samples of the ten bales in dispute returned from England. Mr. Schmidt testifies that in classing cotton purchased by him, he never puts *mixed cotton* in any *regular class*, but either altogether rejects it or classes it by itself, dependent on the terms of the contract. He further testifies that the difference in value between the lowest and the best cotton in each separate sample exhibited of these ten bales, does not exceed three to four cents per lb. in this market.

The committee have carefully examined the samples and the testimony presented to them, and are of opinion that they are altogether insufficient to establish the identity of the cotton. The plaintiffs' own witness, Mr. Schmidt, distinctly states that he never would have put "mixed cotton," such as is contained in these ten bales, among "ordinary" cotton, nor in any other regular class, and yet in no other way could they have possibly got into the lot of sixty-nine bales, among which they are said to have been found, but by his own act. There are two qualities in each of the samples of these ten bales, one, which if they were false packed, would of course have been placed outside, fully middling quality, the other below ordinary, and by no method of drawing samples known to the trade here could these bales, thus constructed, have found their way into the ordinary class of this purchase. The whole declaration of the foreman of the spinners is at variance with the testimony of the plaintiffs' broker here, and with the evidence of the samples themselves, he says that "each bale was merely coated with the

description it ought to contain, whereas if they were coated at all for the purpose of deceiving, it could *not* have been with the description it ought to contain, for there was none such in the bales, but with a class either better or worse, for as before stated, these ten bales, if correctly represented by the samples, contained cotton either entirely above or entirely below the class "ordinary" to which they are said to have belonged. That part of the declaration of this witness in which he asserts, there is a difference of four and half pence, or nearly nine cents, per lb. between the ten bales and the other cotton in the shipment, is equally at variance with the evidence of Mr. Schmidt, who testifies that the difference does not exceed three to four cents per lb., and the appearance of the samples exhibited to the committee, and under these circumstances the committee unanimously award:

That the claims of the plaintiffs be dismissed, and that they pay the costs of this arbitration.

LIBEL FOR COLLISION.

In United States Circuit Court, Philadelphia; before Judges Grier and Kane, Sept. 13th, 1852. The Delaware—appeal in admiralty. Palmer and all owners of the bark Delaware *vs.* the Osprey.

Grier, Judge.—Taking all the other circumstances of these cases together, and omitting the fact of almost total darkness, and that the bark could see the steamboat while the steamboat could not see the bark, the steamboat would have clearly been held liable for the damages of the collision. It is true there is no law requiring vessels navigating the high seas after night to carry signal lights, and I concur with the District Court that it is to be much regretted.

The case before us is briefly this: A steamboat and a sailing vessel are meeting one another on a very dark night in the Delaware Bay, six or seven miles within the Capes. The bark has the wind free. They are approaching each other at the rate of sixteen, or at the least calculation, fifteen miles an hour, and therefore approximate in a right line at the rate of a mile in four minutes. The steamboat has three lights out; the bark has none. The bark sees the steamboat approach. Sailing before the wind, she has the power to give the steamer a wide berth and obviate all possible danger of collision.

Now, if the steamer had the same opportunity of observing the course of the bark, the latter, knowing this fact, would have a right to expect a consequent caution on the part of the steamer. But I think it is plain from the testimony, that the light shown by the bark was too late to be of any benefit or to warn the steamer of its approach, till the very moment of the collision. The warning given of the approach of the bark by her sails intercepting the light from the light-house, like that of the lamp from the bark, was also too late, as well as too uncertain, to justify the steamboat in taking any other means of escaping a collision than she did take. The order to starboard the helm before stopping the boat and reversing the engine, may have been wrong, and it may be true that these latter orders were not fully executed at the time of the collision. It may be true also that the order of the bark to starboard her helm, and disregard that of the steamboat captain to port it, was correct, and the only way of avoiding collision which would have destroyed the bark. But these considerations cannot affect the case. It was the fault of the bark and not of the steamboat that the vessels were brought into such proximity that such mistakes might be made in the dark, when the pilot of the steamboat could neither judge of the distances between the approximating vessels, the rates of their approach, or the relative angle of their respective courses. It was the duty of the bark, which could see, to give a wide berth to the boat, which could not see; and not to leave it in the power of her pilot by a mistake in a moment of surprise to cause a collision.

The rule of passing to the right, or porting the helm, in cases of vessels meeton the same line, is founded on the supposition that each party can see the other. But where one is blind, and the other knows it, he should not put himself within reach of injury by any mistake of the blind, or run over him or knock him down for not observing the rule.

The court cannot establish any rule to bind vessels navigating the high seas after night, to carry signal lights; but where one party does this and the other does not, we can and will treat (in a case *cæteris paribus*) the dark boat as the wrong doer and liable to make reparation. In rivers and narrow channels, and in harbors, there are generally local regulations requiring it. But if there be not, it would still be advisable for vessels sailing either in close or open channels, to keep proper signal lights on dark nights, if they expect a remedy in courts in case of collision.

The decree of the District Court in these cases is therefore affirmed.

OBTAINING GOODS UNDER FALSE PRETENSES.

The following case of obtaining goods under false pretenses, was heard and decided, in Cincinnati, by Judge CARTER, of the Court of Common Pleas:—

McCullough, Morris & Co. *vs.* J. H. Einstein. This was an action of replevin for the recovery of certain merchandise in the defendant, under following circumstances:—

A Mr. Einstein, a merchant in failing circumstances, Attica, Indiana, purchased by false representations the merchandise of the plaintiffs. This same merchant was a debtor to many creditors in this city about that time, and informed of his condition, these creditors pursued him, and compelled him by way of settlement, to give up to them at the rate of ninety cents on the dollar the greater part of his stock of merchandise. The defendant, as a creditor of Einstein, thus came into possession of the property got from the plaintiffs by Einstein.

A jury was waived; and the premium, on extended argument, submitted to the court.

Judge Carter held:—

1. That the weight of the evidence manifested, that Einstein obtained these goods from the plaintiffs by false representations.

2. That, therefore, as against the plaintiffs, he acquired no right of property in the goods; and replevin might be well maintained against him.

3. That when in a purchase, though made by false representations on the part of the vendee, the vender intends at the same time to part with the right of property and of possession—in a word, if there is a complete sale of the property—then the rights acquired by an innocent purchaser, in the ordinary course of trade, are not to be affected by the rights of the original vender.

4. But then, creditors, so far as the weight of testimony goes, are not to be considered in the light of truly innocent purchasers, without notice in the ordinary course of trade: they were pursuing their debtor, and were well aware of his condition—and being so, they took the property at their own peril, so far as the right of others were concerned.

Besides, it is shown by the evidence, that the property in question in this case was in possession of the defendant under concealment; and if so, the court considers this is an especial item of testimony to show, that the defendant does not truly stand in the light of an innocent purchaser, without notice.

Judgment for plaintiffs.

BANK CHECKS—OVERDRAWN ACCOUNT.

In the Supreme Court, city of New York, May 26, 1852; before Judge Sanford. Metropolitan Bank *against* William & James Currie.

This is an action to recover an amount alleged to have been overdrawn by defendants, as account stood between the parties, August 20, 1851.

It appeared that a check of Maretzek, for $4,400 on the Mechanics' Banking Association, dated August 20, 1851, was deposited by defendants in the Metropolitan Bank, and credited at first to them. It was sent in the course of bank business to the Mechanics' Banking Association, the next morning, and returned dishonored; notice of which, it is alleged, was sent to defendants the same day, which, it does not appear, they received. The same morning, the 21st, the defendants gave Maretzek a check for $5,300, which was certified by the teller of

the Metropolitan Bank, and intended, as alleged, to enable Maretzek to take up his check on the Mechanics' Banking Association; it was credited by them to Maretzek, and afterwards payment was countermanded by defendants.

The plaintiffs contend, that it is the practice with the banks to receive checks from their customers without examination, and credit them until they send and find whether they are good; and if they are not good, they return them and require the depositors to make up the deficiency, and the defendants knew of this usage. They also maintain, that the certified check was delivered and credited to the Mechanics' Banking Association before the order of countermand.

The defendants deny that their account was overdrawn; they claim that the certified check was paid, notwithstanding they had countermanded it; and that the funds of Maretzek in the Mechanics' Banking Association were paid out after the check of $4,400 was sent to the bank.

The court having summed up the evidence, reserving the questions of law, instructed the jury to return answers to the following questions on the facts of the case.

1st. Have the Metropolitan Bank assumed and taken the check of $4,400 as their own? Answer, No.

2d. Was the check of $5,300 credited by the Metropolitan Bank to the Mechanics' Banking Association, in the pass-books of the latter, before the Curries notified the Metropolitan Bank not to pay it? Answer, Yes.

3d. Was the check of $5,300 credited by the Metropolitan to the Mechanics' Banking Association, in the ledger of the Metropolitan, before the Curries gave notice not to pay it? Answer, Yes.

Whereupon the court ordered judgment to be entered for plaintiffs, for $4,315 67.

E. Sanford for plaintiffs. C. P. Kirkland for defendants.

ASSUMPSIT AGAINST THE MAKER OF A PROMISSORY NOTE INDORSED IN BLANK.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, March term, 1852. Mechanics' Bank *vs.* Dexter Hildreth.

A firm of two individuals had sold out to the defendant, and received from him six promissory notes for their stock; four of which were divided between the partners, each taking two as his share and property. One of them received the note in suit as his, and indorsed it in blank in the firm's name. The other immediately went into insolvency and the note was thereafter sold. The time of indorsement being in dispute, the jury found at the trial below that it was made before the publication of the notice of insolvency. It was contended that no valid title was shown in the plaintiffs.

The opinion of the court was delivered by Bigelow, J. He said it was unnecessary to go into the question, whether a note on which the firm's name is indorsed before dissolution, and which is negotiated after by one of them without authority, is vested in the holder by a valid title, because it appeared that in this case a perfect title was vested in one of the partners before the dissolution by insolvency. There was an agreement by two partners to divide their joint property, each taking his share; and this they may do. Colyer on Part. § 174. Having exercised this right, it followed, that while the co-partnership continued, each might act in the name of the firm, to vest his share in himself, and might so indorse a note for that purpose. The jury having found that the note was indorsed before the dissolution, it followed that he thereby vested the title absolutely in himself, and might transfer a good title. Exceptions overruled, and the judgment of Court of Common Pleas for the plaintiff affirmed.

PROMISSORY NOTES—INDORSERS.

In the Supreme Court, city of New York, May 21, 1852; before Judge Sanford. Henry L. Van Wyck and another *against* John McIntosh.

The defendant in this action is sued as indorser of a promissory note, made by Thomas McIntosh & Co., for goods sold to them by plaintiff. The note is dated November 14, 1850, for $2,045.

The defense is, that the indorsement is a forgery.

The plaintiffs contend that the indorsement is the actual signature of the defendant; that even if it is a forgery, the defendant, by his subsequent conduct, acquiesced in the signature and adopted it as his own, which amounted to an implied authority from the defendant, to McIntosh to sign his name in his stead.

The court charged the jury to find in the first place, whether the indorsement was in the actual handwriting of defendant. In the absence of any witness to the act of signing, they must consider the evidence of witnesses, who, from their previous acquaintance with the handwriting of the defendant, were competent to decide upon the genuineness of this signature. On this point very many witnesses have been examined, and there is a great discrepancy in their testimony: though it may, perhaps, be said that the balance is in favor of the defendant. Still, in weighing this evidence, you must make allowance for the fact, that even the best judges have widely differed as to the genuineness of the signatures which have been presented to their examination on this trial. It has also been proved, that defendant was in the habit of indorsing notes in blank for his son to fill up, and in his examination at the police office he did not say that this was not his signature.

In the next place, if you find that the name was not signed by defendant, you must unavoidably conclude that it was signed by T. McIntosh the son; and you will then consider whether it was done by defendant's authority, express or implied. There is no evidence of express authority or of express ratification in this case, although it has been shown that in the case of other notes, on which it is alleged there were forged indorsements of defendant's name, he had then declared that they were all right, and would be paid. If you find that the indorsement is not in the actual handwriting of the defendant, and that it was written without his authority or ratification, he is not liable.

Verdict for plaintiffs, $2,190 09.

DECISION ON THE USURY LAW IN NEW JERSEY.

A correspondent of the New Jersey *Herald*, furnishes the subjoined sketch of a case of usury recently decided in that State —

The law upon this subject provides not only that all usurious contracts are void, and makes that a good defense where it can be proved, but also that any person who shall, directly or indirectly, take, accept, or receive more than lawful interest on any loan, shall forfeit the full amount of the money loaned, one-half to the use of the State, and the other to the prosecutor, to be recovered with costs by action of debt on the case, in any court of record having cognizance thereof.

It is not simply making the usurious contract which subjects the lender to this penal action, he must not only contract for unlawful interest, but afterwards receive it in pursuance of the contract.

On the 15th of October, 1846, a citizen of Frankford, in this county, loaned to one of his neighbors $300, and took his note, with two friends as sureties, for $350, payable in two years with interest—making a shave of $50 on $300 lent. When the note became due, the lender sued the three makers upon it. There was no witness to prove the usury except the borrower, and he being sued with the others, it was out of their power to set up usury as a defense to the note, for want of evidence to prove it. The securities then paid the $350 and interest, and the costs of the suit; and one of them turned around and sued the lender under the law above referred to, for the penalty of $300, being the amount loaned. The suit was tried in the Circuit Court of this county, before Judge Ogden, August term of 1850. The usury was proved by the borrower, and the jury found a verdict for the plaintiff for $300, besides the costs. The defendant moved in arrest of judgment, which the Judge refused, and then remanded the suit by writ of error to the Supreme Court. The cause was argued at the last February term of the Supreme Court, and at the term just closed the court unanimously affirmed the judgment.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL ASPECT OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—THE DEMAND FOR MONEY, AND ITS INFLUENCE IN CHECKING UNDUE SPECULATION—INDICATIONS OF GENERAL PROSPERITY—THE INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE UPON THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE COUNTRY—POSITION OF THE BANKS, WITH PARTICULAR ILLUSTRATIONS AT NEW YORK AND NEW ORLEANS—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINT FOR SEPTEMBER—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER, AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—CLASSIFICATION OF IMPORTS, INCLUDING DRY GOODS, WITH A QUARTERLY STATEMENT FOR NINE MONTHS—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK—SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF DUTIES AT NEW YORK, PHILADELPHIA, BOSTON, BALTIMORE, AND NEW ORLEANS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER—QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FOR NINE MONTHS—CLASSIFICATION OF EXPORTS INCLUDING THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRODUCE—PROSPECTS OF THE FOREIGN TRADE FOR THE REMAINDER OF THE YEAR.

As we approach the close of the year, the amount of maturing business obligations, in all of our large commercial cities, is found to be increasing, but the chief demand for money has not been from that source. Since our last, a portion of the surplus capital loaned on call has been withdrawn, and this has created quite a stir among the class of borrowers who were obliged to meet the demand. The securities upon which the loans were based, were mostly of that class not recognized by banking-houses and leading capitalists, and consequently some little difficulty was experienced in obtaining the funds, and it was only effected by a considerable increase in the rates of interest, or by selling out, at a loss, the fancy stocks, upon which the credit was wanted. This excitement in the money market has not seriously affected legitimate business transactions. It has raised the rates of interest two or three per cent per annum upon business paper of a moderate grade, and one or two per cent upon prime signatures; but it has not at all diminished the supply for the regular demand. Neither has it created any increased inquiry for capital from the mercantile portion of the community. In Boston, Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore, the banks discount with a liberal spirit, and no scarcity of money is felt, as generally apprehended.

This check to speculation will prove very useful. Whenever capital is freely obtained for a succession of months, at a low rate of interest, speculators are encouraged to engage in doubtful projects, and men of small means doing even a legitimate business, will advance beyond their depth. Capitalists are not wanting, who will countenance such desperate adventures, tempted thereto by the hope of realizing a larger per centage for the use of their money. All goes swimmingly for awhile until the check is given, when the reaction fully reveals all the recklessness of the enterprise.

Credit continues unimpaired, and thus far there have been fewer failures during the season, than for many years. The demand for merchandise to distribute through the interior has been very active, and the large supplies have not greatly accumulated at any single point. There can, perhaps, be no better evidence of the general prosperity, than the fact that unseasonable or rejected styles of goods are unsaleable at any price. Purchasers are unusually discriminating in their wants, a state of things which exists only when a saving of cost affords no inducement for the sacrifice of taste.

The foreign relations of the country are watched by our capitalists with a

jealous eye, and more solicitude is felt just now in regard to them, than to any difficulties likely to grow out of the development of our own resources, even though the latter be in some respects disproportionate and premature. Commercial interests have often been sneered at, by those who have nothing to lose but everything to gain from a public calamity, as standing ingloriously between the people and a proper vindication of the national honor; and those most valorous for martial glory, speak with a cool contempt of cotton and sugar, and bales of dry goods, and contend that the acquisition of dollars and cents is a pitiful pursuit for one who is fitted to shine in the panoply of war. We would not advocate a sordid spirit, but we do maintain that if the commercial aspects of a rupture with a foreign power had been oftener considered, the history of the past would have been quite as glorious, with fewer sad and sorrowful records. The mercantile community is ever alive to a proper sense of what is due to the national honor, and no country struggling for the right, has ever found its merchants among the last to make sacrifices for the public good. At the same time, Commerce has done more to preserve the peace of the world than all other influences combined; and as commercial ties are multiplied, the nations of the earth will be drawn into that band of common brotherhood, when they will learn war no more.

The banks are generally in a healthy condition. The unauthorized private institutions nominally located in Washington, D. C., to which we called attention in a previous number, have, most of them, failed as we expected, and the public are fleeced out a portion of their circulation. We are happy to know that our warning saved not a few of our readers from serious loss. The legitimate institutions throughout the country, have in no degree lost the public confidence.

The Board of Currency at New Orleans report the following condition of the banks in that city on the 25th Sept.:—

	Circulation.	Specie.	Cash Assets.	Liabilities.
Louisiana.....	$1,083,404	$2,292,633	$6,178,882	$4,428,605
Canal and Banking.	1,062,937	1,091,255	3,989,969	2,647,382
Louisiana State....	1,114,780	1,510,838	5,114,759	4,516,684
Mechan's' & Trade's.	712,660	954,949	3,247,314	2,290,795
Union.....	25,520	95,193	208,074	48,576
Citizens.....	6,028	105,665	107,261	85,319
Consolidated.....	6,738	33,382	33,382	8,730
Total	$4,012,017	$6,083,915	$18,879,641	$14,025,096

By comparing this with a similar statement for the previous month, published in our last number, (page 482) it will be seen that the aggregate circulation has decreased $172,913, the specie $356,818, while the cash assets have increased $1,497,798, and the liabilities only $373,415.

The Controller has called for the statement of the New York, banks to be made up to the 4th September, thus going back a month, instead of selecting a recent date. The banks were taken by surprise, and the statement will be less favorable than would now be made, but still as far as known will possess no objectionable features. The New York city banks have completed their returns, which have been hastily compiled, sufficiently accurate for a comparison, although the aggregate is not official. The figures for the previous quarters are taken from the regular returns.

RESOURCES.

	September 4.	June 26.	March 27.
Loans and discounts except to Directors. and Brokers	$79,378,717	$72,802,007	$64,828,061
Loans and discounts to Directors	3,909,457	3,575,807	3,704,001
Other liabilities of Directors	578,421	658,695	788,580
Due from Brokers	5,866,129	5,443,646	3,017,992
Real estate	2,702,424	2,703,372	2,539,345
Bonds and mortgages	248,611	242,361	242,427
Stocks	5,245,245	5,191,745	4,954,068
Promissory notes	45,961	11,636	30,336
Lose and expense account	319,034	391,122	357,958
Overdrafts	44,935	42,065	40,600
Specie	8,702,908	12,152,048	9,716,070
Cash items	11,824,207	11,889,613	11,385,439
Bills of solvent banks on hand	1,218,513	1,423,412	1,052,666
Due from suspended banks	103,777	.....	4,108
Due from solvent banks	4,186,864	4,347,711	4,407,359
Total resources	$123,647,798	$120,236,080	$106,290,528

LIABILITIES.

Capital	$36,841,550	$35,528,250	$35,187,870
Profits	5,464,584	6,107,491	5,534,138
Circulation of unregistered notes	256,845	270,124	270,841
Circulation of registered notes	8,421,830	7,868,106	7,401,139
Due Treasurer New York State	187,201	205,347	218,743
Deposits	49,661,360	50,110,110	43,415,125
Due individuals and corporations	711,268	290,064	298,658
Due banks on demand	21,646,796	18,160,081	13,593,732
Due on credit	166,984	1,422,684	180,000
Due others	169,842	273,741	190,231
Total liabilities	$123,647,798	$120,236,080	$106,290,528

The foregoing shows an increase in the loans and discounts of over $7,000,000, a decrease in specie of over $4,000,000, an increase of capital of nearly $1,500,000, in the circulation of $500,000, and a falling off in the deposits of $448,780. Were the statement to be repeated to day, a large portion of the loss in specie would be made up, and the loans exhibit a decrease.

We annex a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints for the month of September:—

DEPOSITS FOR SEPTEMBER.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$40,037	$42,594	$4,169,300	$4,254,000
Silver	.....	143	26,000	26,000
Total	$40,037	$42,737	$4,195,300	$4,270,000

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	1,000	$20,000	187,360	$3,747,200
Eagles	.....	.....	24,550	245,500
Half-eagles	.....	.....	61,330	306,650
Quarter-eagles	.....	.....	129,312	323,277
Gold dollars	40,000	40,000	192,526	192,526
Total	41,000	$60,000	595,077	$4,815,153

SILVER COINAGE.				
Quarter-dollars	.....	.....	13,000	$3,250
Dimes.....	180,000	$18,000	100,000	10,000
Half-dimes.....	.....	.....	43,500	4,350
Three-cent pieces.....	.....	.....	1,566,900	47,007
Total.....	180,000	$18,000	1,723,400	$64,607
Total coinage.....	221,000	78,000	2,318,477	4,879,760

There has been no copper coinage during the month. The receipts of gold in California, or at the mints, show no symptoms of a decline, notwithstanding there has been a large emigration from our Pacific coast to Australia.

In our last we asserted that the imports for September would show a considerable increase over the corresponding month of last year. The official entries have since been completed, and we are enabled to present our usual summary, which fully corroborates our statement. The imports at some of the lesser ports show a trifling decrease, but not sufficient to prove of any account in a general comparison. The following is a comparison of the receipts at New York.

FOREIGN IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption	$8,192,761	$8,384,172	$11,095,827
Entered for warehousing	928,125	864,916	623,260
Free goods.....	1,273,878	366,153	834,343
Specie.....	2,406,306	115,550	66,789
Total entered at the port	$12,801,110	$9,730,791	$12,620,219
Withdrawn from warehouse...	1,117,262	1,669,304	1,254,358

To guard against misapprehension, we repeat our former explanation, that the specie received from California, up to November, 1850, was mostly cleared from Chagres on the Isthmus, and entered here as from a foreign port. The receipts of free goods have increased from last year nearly half a million of dollars, but are less than for the same month of 1850. The imports, exclusive of specie, were divided between dry goods and general merchandise as follows:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR SEPTEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods.....	$5,291,690	$5,106,054	$6,659,318
General merchandise.....	5,103,114	4,509,187	5,894,112
Total merchandise.....	$10,394,804	$9,615,241	$12,553,430

It will be seen from the foregoing that the total receipts of foreign merchandise for the month were $2,939,189 greater than for September, 1851, and $2,158,626 greater than for the same month of 1850. This increase has not been sufficient to compensate for the falling off noticed earlier in the year, and the total foreign imports, exclusive of specie, at New York since January 1st, are $7,921,337 less than for the same period of last year, and $535,946 less than for the first nine months of 1850, as will be seen from the following statement:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR NINE MONTHS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods.....	$53,509,498	$54,546,862	$49,533,493
General merchandise.....	47,041,285	53,758,737	50,481,344
Total merchandise	$100,550,783	$108,305,599	$100,014,837

Had the receipts of general merchandise borne the same proportion to those of dry goods as in former years, the total for the current year would show a still greater decline. We annex further particulars of the foregoing imports, with the amount of specie from foreign ports:—

IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR NINE MONTHS, ENDING SEPTEMBER 30.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption.....	$80,481,533	$90,426,070	$83,305,277
Entered for warehousing.....	12,587,769	10,709,917	6,539,890
Free goods	7,481,481	7,169,612	10,169,670
Specie.....	14,928,519	1,782,529	2,151,954
Total entered at the port ..	$115,479,302	$110,088,128	$102,166,791
Withdrawn from warehouse.	8,211,418	9,801,534	12,206,926

It will be noticed that the value of goods entered for warehousing is $4,000,000 less than during the same period of last year, and $6,000,000 less than for the same time in 1850; while the withdrawals from warehouse show a corresponding increase. This might have been expected from the brisk demand which had been maintained for foreign goods, which has taken all fresh arrivals, which were at all desirable, directly for consumption, and drawn largely on the surplus stock left in bond from former seasons. The imports have increased during the last quarter, so that in order to show the progress of the foreign trade since January 1st, we have compiled a quarterly statement which will be found of much interest.

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK.

	QUARTER ENDING		
	March 31, 1852.	June 30, 1852.	Sept 30, 1852.
Entered for consumption.....	$24,911,287	$22,133,625	$36,260,365
Entered for warehousing.....	3,201,496	1,826,253	1,512,141
Free goods.....	3,996,343	3,348,442	2,824,885
Specie.....	740,450	1,137,731	273,773
Total, 1852.....	$32,849,576	$28,446,051	$40,871,164
Total, 1851.....	40,603,975	31,780,382	37,698,771
Total, 1850.....	32,068,726	34,954,052	48,096,524
Withdrawn from warehouse '52.	$4,979,498	$3,547,279	$3,680,149
Withdrawn from warehouse '51.	2,992,121	2,720,220	4,089,193
Withdrawn from warehouse '50.	2,320,775	2,113,199	3,777,444

We also annex our usual summary of the imports of dry goods, the totals of which are included in the above statement:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool.....	$1,380,248	$1,293,205	$2,085,397
Manufactures of cotton	546,523	600,673	950,820
Manufactures of silk.....	1,874,495	1,553,943	2,070,823
Manufactures of flax	483,040	477,742	742,596
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	342,998	331,601	446,681
Total.....	$4,627,304	$4,256,564	$6,296,317

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$361,100	$494,484	$166,667
Manufactures of cotton	117,801	107,154	69,448
Manufactures of silk	126,316	245,100	97,148
Manufactures of flax	65,715	44,778	56,955
Miscellaneous dry goods	23,816	31,059	35,601
Total	$694,748	$922,575	$425,819
Add entered for consumption	4,627,304	4,256,564	6,296,317
Total thrown on the market	$5,322,052	$5,179,139	$6,722,136

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$232,783	$277,963	$96,804
Manufactures of cotton	116,729	159,998	59,597
Manufactures of silk	232,520	184,289	88,150
Manufactures of flax	56,833	137,148	56,732
Miscellaneous dry goods	25,521	90,092	61,718
Total	$664,386	$849,490	$368,001
Add entered for consumption	4,627,304	4,256,564	6,296,317
Total entered at the port	$5,291,690	$5,106,054	$6,659,318

IMPORT OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR NINE MONTHS, ENDING SEPTEMBER 30.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$13,527,083	$11,965,958	$12,079,080
Manufactures of cotton	9,020,422	8,448,367	7,906,679
Manufactures of silk	17,110,790	19,828,556	17,020,256
Manufactures of flax	6,270,651	5,161,925	4,781,272
Miscellaneous dry goods	2,112,874	3,087,479	3,475,820
Total	$48,041,820	$48,492,285	$45,263,107

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,538,567	$1,688,155	$1,467,303
Manufactures of cotton	1,072,811	1,237,340	1,291,003
Manufactures of silk	962,064	1,225,715	1,638,467
Manufactures of flax	370,711	507,477	714,607
Miscellaneous dry goods	120,851	311,647	296,552
Total	$4,065,004	$4,970,334	$5,407,932
Add entered for consumption	48,041,820	48,492,285	45,263,107
Total thrown on market	$52,106,824	$53,462,619	$50,671,039

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,903,973	$1,939,209	$1,098,877
Manufactures of cotton	1,654,493	2,342,205	745,479
Manufactures of silk	1,208,605	1,794,381	1,812,847
Manufactures of flax	600,197	620,107	300,384
Miscellaneous dry goods	358,675	358,675	312,799
Total	$5,467,678	$6,054,577	$4,270,386
Add entered for consumption	48,041,820	48,492,285	45,263,107
Total entered at port	$53,509,498	$54,546,862	$49,533,493

By the above tables it will be seen that the total value of foreign dry goods received at the port of New York for the month, was $1,553,264 greater than for the same month of last year, and $1,367,628 greater than for the same

month of 1850. But the total receipts of foreign dry goods since January 1st are $5,013,369 less than for the same period of last year, and $3,976,005 less than for the same period of 1850.

The cash duties for the year are in excess of the government estimates, and the balance in all the depositories is quite large. The following will show the comparative revenue at the port of New York for the month, and for each quarter since January 1st:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
In September	$2,495,242 77	$2,609,832 97	$3,166,107 29
Quarter ending March 31	6,996,656 48	9,295,257 30	7,617,887 72
Quarter ending June 30	6,033,253 57	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16
Quarter ending September 30	10,190,324 37	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03
Total for nine months	$23,220,284 42	$26,055,662 90	$24,531,502 91

The total revenue of the United States for customs, for the last quarter of the year, may be set down in round numbers as follows:—

From the district of New York	$10,215,000
From the district of Boston	1,888,000
From the district of Philadelphia	1,397,000
From the district of New Orleans	436,000
From the district of Baltimore	211,000
From the district of Charleston	141,000
From all other districts	500,000
Total for three months, ending Sept. 30, 1852	$14,788,000
Total for three months, ending Sept. 30, 1851	14,754,909

The current quarter of the year, will show a much larger gain in the revenue, and it will soon become a serious question as to what is to be done with the money.

Turning now to the exports from the same port, we find an increase for the month of $691,197, as compared with last year, although the shipments have not reached the amount which cleared during the same month of 1850.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic produce	$4,844,574	$2,593,986	$3,289,429
Foreign merchandise, free	16,551	134,271	128,184
Foreign, dutiable	707,834	316,047	317,888
Specie	1,033,918	3,490,142	2,122,495
Total	$6,602,877	$6,534,446	$5,857,996
Total, exclusive of specie	5,568,959	3,044,304	3,735,501

This increase for the month brings the exports for the year (exclusive of specie) up to just about the same value as for the corresponding period of last year, but leaves it about $2,000,000 behind the amount for the first nine months of 1850.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NINE MONTHS, ENDING SEPT. 30.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic produce	$32,273,100	$31,498,446	$30,741,612
Foreign merchandise, free	479,850	530,901	716,626
Foreign, dutiable	3,778,199	2,916,735	3,294,173
Specie	6,447,466	31,261,271	20,653,836
Total	$42,978,615	$66,207,353	$55,406,247
Total, exclusive of specie	36,531,149	34,946,082	34,752,411

The exports of specie, it will be seen, are far behind the shipments of last year. We also annex a quarterly statement of the exports since January 1st:—

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK.

	QUARTER ENDING March 31, 1852.	June 30, 1852.	Sept. 30 1852.
Domestic produce	$10,085,484	$12,060,337	$8,595,791
Foreign merchandise, free	221,182	300,037	195,407
Foreign, dutiable	1,037,746	1,381,829	864,598
Specie	7,032,495	5,591,514	8,029,827
Total, 1852	$18,376,907	$19,333,717	$17,685,623
Total, 1851	15,533,650	28,369,791	22,303,912
Total, 1850	9,818,588	13,981,894	19,183,133

We also annex a comparative statement of the shipments of some of the leading articles of produce, from New York to foreign ports, from January 1st to October 16th:—

	1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots ...bbls.	18,289	14,950
Pearls	1,511	731
Beeswax.....lbs.	233,707	234,742
Breadstuffs—		
Wheat flour...bbls.	1,029,082	1,091,194
Rye flour	7,085	8,086
Corn meal	33,638	38,237
Wheat..... bush.	943,848	2,063,034
Rye	.....	236,460
Oats	3,418	9,968
Barley	.....	367
Corn	1,438,893	735,324
Candles—Mould. bxs.	30,297	47,722
Sperm	2,588	3,141
Coal.....tons	4,834	30,739
Cotton.....bales	248,560	293,370
Hay	5,939	6,650
Hops	189	499

	1851.	1852.
Naval stores....bbls.	299,538	354,646
Oils—Whale...galls.	1,033,398	87,838
Sperm	496,977	549,572
Lard	204,181	23,679
Linseed	5,899	10,888
Provisions—		
Pork.....bbls.	38,444	29,965
Beef	29,107	37,541
Cut meats.....lbs.	2,823,905	1,857,262
Butter	1,818,092	541,817
Cheese	4,638,967	784,108
Lard	4,679,702	3,879,669
Rice.....tcs.	22,959	23,276
Tallow.....lbs.	1,896,977	365,115
Tobacco—Crude.pkgs.	13,686	20,841
Man'd..lbs.	2,874,949	3,498,739
Whalebone.....lbs.	1,700,144	626,773

This comparison exhibits some changes in our export trade worthy of notice. The exports of flour have increased only about 60,000 bbls., while the shipments of wheat have increased 1,119,186 bushels, or about 120 per cent on last year's exports! The shipments of corn have fallen off 700,000 bushels. The exports of whale oil, owing to its scarcity in consequence of the damage to the whaling fleet, have been comparatively nominal. Provisions have gone forward less freely, as a general thing, in consequence of their high prices, but beef has been more freely shipped. Tobacco has been taken in larger quantities. The prospects for the export trade are quite flattering, and an increased demand for prime grain and many other domestic products, may reasonably be expected. We gave in our last a complete statement of the shipments of cotton down to the close of the commercial year (August 31.) Since that date the exports have slightly increased as compared with last year. There can be but little question but what our previous estimate of the quantity of breadstuffs to be exported, will be fully realized. We have a large surplus of cereals, and at some price or other, they must be sold. The present price is not so great as to hinder a large consumption in Great Britain, and that country will doubtless continue to be our best customer.

The import trade must continue large down to the close of the year; the stocks of goods in first hands are quite small, and the demand is not yet satisfied. The receipts of foreign merchandise for the last quarter of 1851 were not heavy, and there is every prospect that the same period of this year will show a considerable excess in comparison. Should the exports prove as large as anticipated—particularly should cotton go forward freely—no inconvenience will result from this increased business, while our marine will be fully employed at profitable rates.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

SHIPMENTS OF GOLD DUST FROM SAN FRANCISCO.

OFFICE OF ADAMS & CO., SAN FRANCISCO, August 14, 1852.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

DEAR SIR:—We take the liberty of inclosing to you our semi-annual statement of the gold dust and treasure shipped from this port. You will notice quite a discrepancy between the amounts shipped by our table and the reports from the custom-house books. This can be easily understood when the fact is known, that the shipping manifest is invariably guessed at, and the ship cleared before all the treasure is shipped. This, with the companies' steamers, may not be done on purpose—with others, it is often done so. Quite a quantity of ingots have been shipped as dust, and no mention made of them separately. We shall obtain, however, by and by, a partial return. The bars included in the dust shipment should be properly included there. Not so the ingots, which might thereby be twice reckoned in estimating the product of gold for this year.

Yours truly,

ADAMS & CO., BY J. C. WOODS.

The following tables contain full statements of all treasure, in dust, Federal and foreign currency, forwarded hence by steamers and sailing vessels, each in separate order, from January 1 to July 1, 1852, with the particular amount, date, and destination of each shipment—being a direct sequence of similar tables compiled by the same firm, (already published,) for the period ending January, 1852. These statements are compiled very carefully, and may be received as perfectly reliable:—

STATEMENT OF GOLD DUST MANIFESTED AND SHIPPED FROM SAN FRANCISCO, BY STEAMERS, FROM JANUARY 1 TO JULY 1, 1852.

Date.	Name of vessel.	Destined for New York.	Destined for London.	Destined for N. Orleans.	Monthly total
January 1....	Oregon.....	$1,028,409	$283,153	$3,102	.....
" 16....	California.....	1,500,000	237,047	8,499	.....
" 17....	Independence...	41,000	.....	....	.....
" 31....	North America..	23,000	.....	....	$3,074,210
February 1....	Tennessee.....	1,296,017	211,401	3,705	.....
" 14....	Pacific.....	194,000	.....	....	.....
" 16....	Panama	1,235,760	160,786	12,113	3,113,782
March 1....	Independence...	27,500	.....	....	.....
" 2....	Northerner.....	1,022,160	214,973	3,598	.....
" 15 ...	California	631,173	144,864	....	.....
" 16....	New Orleans ...	9,676	.....	....	.....
" 20 ...	Tennessee.....	97,061	32,175	....	2,182,680
April 1 ...	Pacific.....	24,000	.....	....	.....
" 5....	Golden Gate....	1,620,000	223,091	50,125	.....
" 15....	Independence...	15,472	.....	....	.....
" 18....	Northerner.....	1,343,288	269,747	16,570	3,562,293
May 2....	Columbia	1,494,727	342,118	....	.....
" 5....	Winfield Scott...	45,500	.....	....	.....
" 16....	Oregon.....	1,375,223	212,358	4,784	.....
" 18....	Pacific.....	17,968	.....	....	3,492,678
June 1....	Independence...	24,391	.....	....	.....
" 1....	Tennessee.....	1,670,173	199,783	76,788	.....
" 16....	California.....	1,642,335	258,670	5,303	.....
" 25....	Winfield Scott...	100,000	.....	....	3,977,443
Total.....		$16,478,833	$2,739,666	$184,587	$19,403,086

STATEMENT OF TREASURE MANIFESTED AND SHIPPED FROM SAN FRANCISCO, BY SAILING VESSELS, FROM JANUARY 1 TO JULY 1, 1852.

Date.	Name of vessel, destination, and nation.	Total amount of treasure.	Gold dust.	Mexican dollars.	Doubloons.	Prem. on doll. & pr oz. for dust.
Feb. 5,	Brig Argyle, Hong Kong, American.	$16,000	.....	$16,000	.....	4¼ a 5
9,	Ship Comet, Hong Kong, American	7,213	$4,215	2,998	.....	5 a 6
19,	Bark Sophia, Valparaiso, Hamburg.	18,000	18,000	.....	.....	17 25
28,	Ship St. Lawrence, Manilla, Amer..	49,850	.....	5,850	$44,000	5
28,	Sword Fish, Hong Kong, American.	3,115	.....	3,115	.....	5 a 6
Mar. 1,	Sch. Diana, Valparaiso, Dutch.....	11,000	11,000	.....	.....	17 25
17,	Brig Marion, Punta Arenas, Amer..	4,000	.....	.....	4,000	....
19,	Ship Hannibal, Calcutta, American.	2,500	2,500	.....	.....	17 40
24,	Bark Mazeppa, Valparaiso, Amer..	9,549	9,549	.....	.....	17 25
Apr. 13	Ship Hamburg, Hong Kong, British.	28,000	8,000	20,000	.....	17 25
22,	Bark Walter, Ports in China, Germ.	20,100	19,000	1,100	.....	17 25
27,	Ship Challenge, Hong Kong, Germ.	20,000	.....	19,000	1,000	5 a 6
May 10	Ship Sartelle, Calcutta, German...	60,000	.....	60.000	.....	5 a 6
11,	Brig Zoe, Honolulu, German*.....	11,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
14,	Maid of Julpha, Isle of Pacific, British	1,000	.....	1,000	.....	5
15,	Ship Invincible, Hong Kong, Amer.	16,250	.....	16,250	.....	5 a 6
17,	Bark A. Gracia, Guaymas, Amer ..	1,000	.....	1,000	.....	5 a 6
26,	Brig Sabrina, Java, British†.....	15,000	.....	5,000	5,000	5 a 6
28,	Ship Witchcraft, Hong Kong, Amer.	8,000	.....	8,000	.....	5
June 2,	Ship Tarolinta, Shanghae, American	15,000	.....	15,000	.....	5 a 6
15,	Sir Geo. Pollock, Hong Kong, British	5,000	.....	5.000	.....	5
July 1,	Bark Palmetto, Shanghae, American	17,000	....	17,000	.....	5 a 6
	Total.....	338,577	72,264	196,313	54,000	

CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF BOSTON BANKS, IN OCTOBER, 1852.

STEPHEN BROWN & SONS, Stock and Exchange Brokers, Boston, report the following table of semi-annual dividends, declared and payable by the several Banks in Boston on Monday, October 4th, 1852:—

Banks.	Capital.	Dividends.	Amou't.	Banks.	Capital.	Dividends.	Amou't.
Atlantic	$500,000	4	$20,000	Market	$560,000	5	$28,000
Atlas.....	500,000	3½	17,500	Massachusetts....	800,000	3	24,000
Blackstone.....	250,000	4	10,000	Mechanics' (S. B).	150,000	4	6,000
Boston.....	900,000	4	36,000	Merchants'	3,000,000	4	120,000
Boylston.....	250,000	4½	11,250	New England....	1,000,000	4	40,000
City.....	1,000,000	3½	35,000	North	750,000	3½	26,250
‡ Cochituate.....	250.000	4	10,000	North America...	500,000	4	20,000
Columbia	500,000	3	15,000	Shawmut	500,000	4	20,000
Commerce.....	1,500,000	4	60,000	Shoe & L'r Deal's'.	1,000,000	4	40,000
Eagle	500,000	3½	17,500	State.....	1,800,000	3	54,000
Exchange	1,000,000	4	40,000	Suffolk	1,000,000	5	50,000
Fanueil Hall.....	500,000	4	20,000	Traders'.....	600,000	3½	21,000
Freeman's	300,000	4½	13,500	Tremont.....	1,000,000	4	40,000
Globe	1,000,000	4	40,000	Union	1,000,000	4	40,000
§ Granite.....	750,000	4	30,000	Washington	500,000	3	15,000
Grocers'	300,000	4	12,000				
Hamilton	500,000	4	20,000		$24,660,000		$952,000

The Randolph Bank pays a semi-annual dividend of 5 per cent, on Monday, Oct. 4.

The amount of capital of all the banks in Boston in October, 1851, was $23,660,000. The amount as above stated, $24,660,000, shows an increase of bank capital since October, 1851, of $100,000,000.

* 11,000 ingots. † 5,000 sovereigns.

‡ The Cochituate Bank pay on $100,000 increase capital since last dividend.

§ The Granite Bank also pay on $100,000 increase capital since last dividend.

UNITED STATES TREASURER'S STATEMENT, SEPTEMBER 27, 1852.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT, SHOWING THE AMOUNT AT HIS CREDIT IN THE TREASURY, WITH ASSISTANT TREASURERS AND DESIGNATED DEPOSITARIES, AND IN THE MINT AND BRANCHES, BY RETURNS RECEIVED TO MONDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1852; THE AMOUNT FOR WHICH DRAFTS HAVE BEEN ISSUED, BUT WERE THEN UNPAID, AND THE AMOUNT THEN REMAINING SUBJECT TO DRAFT. SHOWING, ALSO, THE AMOUNT OF FUTURE TRANSFERS TO AND FROM DEPOSITARIES, AS ORDERED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

	Amount on deposit.	Drafts heretofore drawn but not yet paid, though payable.	Amount subj. to draft.
Treasury of United States, Washington ..	$151,837 97	$43,095 25	$108,742 72
Assistant Treasurer, Boston, Mass.....	1,785,592 01	23,078 83	1,762,513 18
Assistant Treasurer, New York, N. Y.....	6,718,689 29	862,883 89	5,855,805 40
Assistant Treasurer, Philadelphia, Pa.....	1,268,375 31	78,034 96	1,190,340 35
Assistant Treasurer, Charleston, S. C	78,900 85	18,323 56	60,577 29
Assistant Treasurer, New Orleans, La.....	1,105,099 66	1,056,184 42	48,915 24
Assistant Treasurer, St. Louis, Mo.....	518,683 99	429,410 75	89,273 24
Depositary at Buffalo, New York.....	26,397 70	15,945 85	10,451 85
Depositary at Baltimore, Md.....	44,701 33	5,171 38	39,529 95
Depositary at Richmond, Va	18,404 31	213 72	18,180 59
Depositary at Norfolk, Va.....	65,812 79	62,144 36	3,668 43
Depositary at Wilmington, N. C.....	4,646 28	4,473 44	172 84
Depositary at Savannah, Georgia.....	37,595 63	121 66	37,473 97
Depositary at Mobile, Alabama.....	15,413 03	5,465 48	9,947 55
Depositary at Nashville, Tennessee.....	21,565 00	17,785 63	3,779 37
Depositary at Cincinnati, Ohio.....	68,512 32	2,398 61	66,113 71
Depositary at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania....	2,633 51	517 11	2,116 40
Depositary at Cincinnati, (late).....	3,301 37	.....	3,301 37
Depositary at San Francisco.....	886,100 07	376,858 52	509,241 55
Depositary at Dubuque.....	2,017 88	1,495 02	522 86
Depositary at Little Rock, Arkansas.....	16,041 56	8,294 35	7,747 21
Depositary at Jeffersonville, Indiana	35,544 41	13,505 40	22,039 01
Depositary at Chicago, Illinois.....	83,293 32	553 00	82,740 32
Depositary at Detroit, Michigan.....	24,354 88	5,493 50	18,861 38
Depositary at Tallahassee, Florida.....	4,594 01	3,970 99	623 02
Suspense account.....$2,486 66	.....	2,486 66	....
Mint of the U. S., Philadelphia, Pa.....	5,629,170 00	.....	5,629,170 00
Branch Mint of U. S., Charlotte, N. C	32,000 00	.....	32,000 00
Branch Mint of U. S., Dahlonega, Ga.....	26,850 00	.....	26,850 00
Branch Mint of U. S., New Orleans, La...	1,100,000 00	500,000 00	600,000 00
Total.....	19,776,128 48	3,537,916 34	16,240,698 80
Deduct suspense account.....			2,486 66
			$16,238,212 14
Add difference in transfers			1,477,500 00
Net amount subject to draft			$17,715,712 14
Transfers ordered to treasury of the U. S., Washington, D. C....			$700,000 00
Transfers ordered to Assistant Treasurer, New York, N. Y.			100,000 00
Transfers ordered to Assistant Treasurer, New Orleans, La			400,000 00
Transfers ordered to Depositary at Norfolk, Virginia			180,000 00
Transfers ordered to Depositary at San Francisco, California....			100,000 00
Total.....			$1,480,000 00
Transfers ordered from Mint of the U. S., Philadelphia, Pa.....			2,500 00

BANK-NOTES OF THE OLDEN TIMES.

There lies before us, says the *Commercial Advertiser*, a bank-note for fifty dollars, of the Bank of Rhode Island, dated at Newport on the 8th of January, 1796, and signed "Chris. Champlin, President"—"M. Seixcas, Cashier."

The history of this note is remarkable. About three years ago, this and another bill for the same amount were presented at the bank for payment, having been placed in the Suffolk Bank, Boston, for collection. One of them was dated in 1795, and was the first bill ever issued by the Bank of Rhode Island. No bills of the kind had been issued for thirty-five years previously, and the presentation of these at the bank was of course unexpected. They were, however, promptly redeemed, and their history elicited. They were found among the effects of an old man, who had recently died at Salem, Mass., who lived in poverty, and who probably believed the bills to be worthless, as they were found in a package of others of broken banks.

The presidency and cashiership of the Bank of Rhode Island have been held in the same family for half a century, Mr. Peleg Clarke being now president, and Mr. W. A. Clarke cashier. We know of no older incorporated institution in New England,* except the Washington Insurance Company of Providence, chartered in 1787, of which the venerable Sullivan Dorr is still the president.

We have also before us another money relic, dated April 12, 1760, being a bill for "three pounds," which "by law shall pass current in New Jersey for eight ounces and fifteen pennyweights of plate." It is printed in red ink, on thick paper, and is about three inches and a half long by an inch and three-quarters broad. The signatures are nearly effaced.

STATISTICS OF THE DEBT OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The London *Times* publishes the following statement relative to the national debt of Great Britain:—

A Parliamentary return in relation to the public debt gives the following particulars of its variations during the last thirty years, both as regards the amount of principal and the annual cost for the payment of interest. It will be seen that the reduction in the principal effected during that period has been only £50,000,000, or 6 per cent, but that as regards the annual charge for interest, in has been £3,326,424, or nearly 11 per cent. The lowest point at which the national debt ever stood of late years was in 1834, when it had declined to £772,196,849, or to ten millions below the sum at which it now stands, the emancipation loan in 1835, and the Irish famine loan in 1847, having far more than counterbalanced all subsequent reductions. It is to be remarked, however, that owing to the conversion of the three-and-a-half per cents, and the low rates paid upon the unfunded debt, &c., the actual cost of these obligations is now smaller than at that period.

During the next seven or eight years this charge will experience a further diminution of £2,207,500, of which £600,000 will take place by the three-and-a-quarter per cents becoming three-per-cents in October, 1854, while the cessation of the remaining will occur through the expiry of the long annuities in January, 1860, for £1.293,500, and of other annuities, amounting to £1,314,000, during the intervening time. The annuity held by the bank for £585,700 does not terminate till 1867. The unfunded debt, which is included in the subjoined totals, was less in 1851 than in any other year of the series, its amount being £17,742,800. In 1822 it was as high as £36,281,150:—

Year.	Amount.	Cost.	Year.	Amount.	Cost.
1822.....	£832,811,295	£31,343,551	1837.....	786,319,738	29,489,571
1823	826,443,364	29,978,454	1838.....	785,373,740	29,269,238
1824	813,521,672	30,166,421	1839.....	786,512,734	29,454,062
1825	806,122,467	29,197,187	1840.....	787,448,075	29,381,718
1826	808,867,590	29,228,967	1841.....	790,874,608	29,450,145
1827	805,023,742	29,417,543	1842.....	791,250,440	29,428,120
1828	799,979,540	29,309,052	1843.....	790,576,392	29,269,160
1829	796,742,482	29,156,611	1844.....	787,598,145	30,495,459
1830	783,096,646	29,118,859	1845.....	785,053,022	28,253,872
1831	781,095,284	28,341,416	1846.....	782,918,984	28,077,987
1832	779,796,549	28,323,752	1847.....	790,348,851	28,141,531
1833	779,565,783	28,522,507	1848.....	791,309,338	28,563,517
1834	772,196,849	28,504,096	1849.....	790,927,017	28,323,961
1835	787,526,466	28,514,610	1850.....	787,029,162	28,091,590
1836	788,398,570	29,243,599	1851.....	782,869,382	28,017,127

* The Massachusetts Bank, in Boston, is an older institution, having been chartered in 1784; and the Union Bank, in Boston, in the year 1792.—EDITOR.

REVENUE OF THE PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

ST. JOHN, September 20, 1852.

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.* :—

DEAR SIR :—If the inclosed is of any service to you please publish it. The pound is equal to four dollars American. The Loan Fund is to pay off the Province debt, and is raised by levying 1 per cent upon all British and foreign manufactured articles, also pepper and spices imported into the Province. The Auction Tax is a duty of 1 per cent upon all goods sold at auction, except sheriffs' sales, household furniture, effects of deceased persons, underwriters' sales, salt and coals.

Your obd't serv't, R. S.

ABSTRACT OF THE REVENUE OF THE PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK FOR THE YEAR 1850, THE LAST YEAR'S REVENUE AS YET RETURNED.

	Loan Fund.	Import duty.	Export duty.	Light-house duty.	Sick seamens' duty.	Total.
Saint John...	£4,824 12	£55,824 4	£10,903 2	£2,698 18	£876 9	£79,469 11
Miramichi....	336 6	3,912 11	1,942 2	164 12	287 13	6,647 17
Dalhousie....	193 12	2,710 2	1,231 9	86 4	82 5	4,309 19
Bathurst.....	84 7	986 3	399 17	41 13	38 15	1,550 16
Shippegan....	39 6	336 13	24 16	5 17	3 18	410 11
Richibucto....	184 17	1,722 10	949 13	92 16	85 1	3,034 19
Shediac.....	15	4 1	266 16	28 10	25 4	324 17
Dorchester...	29 18	216 5	63 15	30 8	5 0	346 0
Bay Verte...	3 15	40 1	.....	.....	.....	43 17
Hopewell....	17 19	48 9	89 6	11 5	1 11	168 12
Fredericton ..	113 0	1,307 13	.....	.....	.....	1,420 13
Grand Falls..	10	8 7	.....	.....	.....	8 17
Woodstock....	7 6	105 4	.....	.....	.....	113 11
St. Andrew's.	165 11	2,397 14	212 0	137 1	83 2	3,056 13
St. Stephen ..	98 19	1,302 16	492 1	158 8	100 11	2,153 14
St George ...	45 8	524 13	326 17	114 19	75 16	1,087 13
Grand Manam.	.....	.....	.....	1 1	.....	1 1
Total ...	£6,146 8	£71,447 12	£16,901 8	£3,571 18	£1,665 8	£104,089 9

Increase of revenue over 1849 is £8,552 12 2.

In addition to the revenue received from the sources specified above, that derived from other sources for the entire Province is as follows :—

Casual Revenue	£2,500 00 0
Supreme Court Fees	1,084 7 0
Auction Tax	200 4 10
Pedlars' Licenses	9 0 0
Emigrant Duty	563 7 6

These sums are included in the column of "total" in the above table. We have also omitted, for the sake of convenience, the pence in the table which will make a trifling difference in the totals.

DIVIDENDS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

The semi-annual dividend of the Bank of England was 3½ per cent, as declared on the 16th September, which is a reduction of ½ per cent from the previous six months. The reduced dividends is said to be owing to the cheapness of money, and the difficulty of lending it except at very low rates. There was a rumor prevalent in London that loans as government securities would be reduced from 2 per cent to 1½ per cent per annum. The Bank of England was making arrangements to augment the stock of silver for circulation, which had recently become very much reduced by the emigration to Australia and elsewhere. At the meeting of the Bank of England, the question of electing a permanent governor, was under discussion.

DEBT AND REVENUE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

From a circular addressed to the foreign loan holders of the State of Pennsylvania, by JOHN J. MCCAHEN, Commissioner of loans for that State, we extract the subjoined statement of the debt and resources of the State:—

The whole debt of Pennsylvania is forty millions of dollars, or about eight millions of pounds sterling. The State has the right to pay off the same at the periods designated in the following table:—

At the present time, (and will be paid during this year,)	$3,314,325 20
In the beginning of the year 1853, (will be paid as soon as the period arrives,)	688,479 51
Loan made in 1841	650,163 00
Bank-charter loans, payable at any time	139,500 00
During the year 1853, and January 1, 1854	2,744,057 83
During the year 1854	2,146,529 83
August 1, 1855	4,478,040 26
July 1, 1856	2,731,190 49
March and July 1, 1858	7,022,283 01
July and August 1, 1859	1,209,999 59
July 1, 1860	2,582,386 48
The remainder of the loans are payable in 1861, 1862, 1863, 1864, 1865, 1868, and 1870, $400,000 due in 1879, and $850,000 in 1882, amounting in all to	13,062,000 00
Total	$40,746,905 20

It will be perceived by the foregoing that the State has the right to pay off, during the year 1852, $3,314,325 20; during the year 1853, $4,202,200 34; during the year 1854, and August, 1855, $6,624,670 09; and July 1, 1856, $2,731,190 49; the first half-year of 1858, $7,022,283 01; in two years after, $4,392,386 07; making an aggregate of $28,287,005 20, payable in less than eight years.

The following exhibits the comparative revenue of the State of Pennsylvania for the years 1843 and 1851, and the estimated revenue of 1852, from general and regular sources. The fiscal year terminates on the 30th of November:—

	1843.	1851.	1852.
Loans	$8,254 03	$43,152 96	$45,000
Auctioneers' commission and duties	88,972 28	71,816 47	70,000
Tax on banks, corporations, and their dividends	67,040 55	392,830 61	420,000
Tax on loans, offices, enrolments, &c.	43,844 03	202,672 95	225,000
Tax on real and personal estate,	554,452 06	1,372,170 37	1,400,000
Tax on collateral inheritances	22,337 05	150,625 48	100,000
Licenses, retailers', tavern, &c.	119,952 34	297,999 90	300,000
Public works, railroads, and canals	1,010,401 15	1,719,788 54	2,000,000
Other sources, ordinary receipts,	10,573 87	70,853 21	100,000
Balance of available funds at end of fiscal year	115,466 91	543,979 21	1,000,000
Total	$2,040,294 27	$4,865,339 70	$5,660,000

The prosperity of the State cannot be retarded, unless by some improbable casualty; the completion of the last link of her improvements has been provided for, and it is expected that in one year the North Branch Canal will pay a revenue upon more than three-and-a-half millions of dollars, hitherto entirely unproductive. The railways are now improving, and, being adapted to increased business and celerity in transporting passengers and freight, we may confidently predict that, in less than two years, the receipts upon our public works will exceed two-and-a-half million dollars per annum. The single article of anthracite coal will illustrate the product we wealth of the State:—

In 1843, there were sent to market from our eastern coal-fields....tons	1,340,710
In 1851	4,383,730
Showing an increase of production of	3,142,020
The amount mined in 1852 will equal	5,300,000

FINANCES OF CANADA FOR THE YEAR ENDING JANUARY 31, 1852.

From the public accounts recently submitted to the Legislature of Canada, it appears that the finances of that country during the year ending January 31, 1852, were as annexed:—

Balance to credit of consolidated fund, January 31, 1851	£199,882	13	4
Received one year's revenue	842,184	5	2
	£1,042,066	18	6
And expended	631,666	6	8
Balance now on hand on 31st January, 1852	£407,400	11	10

The revenue arises from the following items:—

Customs	£703,700	14	0
Excise	20,180	13	8
Territorial	19,961	5	10
Light-house duty, C. W	937	6	10
Bank impost	15,832	7	7
Militia fines, &c.	8	2	6
Fines, forfeitures, and seizures	1,864	0	0
Casual	11,138	2	11
Law fee fund	4,052	12	2
Total	£842,184	5	2

The following are items of expenditure:—

Interest on debt	£223,561	14	3
Schedule A	29,230	18	2
Schedule B	33,547	8	9
Permanent charges by legislative enactment, C. E	4,655	8	2
" " " " C. W	10,573	0	0
" " " " United Canada	125,355	0	7
Charges under estimate, 1850	8,770	1	4
" " 1852	125,972	14	5
Sinking fund	78,000	0	0
Total	£634,466	0	0

It appears by this that there was a surplus in hand of over four hundred thousand pounds, notwithstanding the increase in the sinking fund for the year, of seventy-three thousand younds. In the revenue and expenditure accounts for the year, it appears that there was a surplus of £207,518. This surplus the previous year was £199,882.

TAXES OF CORPORATIONS IN LOWELL.

A LIST OF CORPORATIONS IN LOWELL, (MASSACHUSETTS,) WHO PAY FIFTY DOLLARS AND UPWARDS OF TAXES ON PROPERTY IN THAT CITY.

Appleton Bank	$122	40	
Proprietors of South Congregational Meeting-house	102	00	
Lowell Institution for Savings	207	40	
Boston and Lowell Railroad	370	60	
Nashua and Lowell Railroad	95	20	
Nashua and Lowell and Lowell and Lawrence Railroad	149	60	
Lowell and Lawrence Railroad	54	40	
Lowell Gas Company	1,088	00	
Appleton Corporation	3,264	00	
Boott Manufacturing Company	6,528	00	
Hamilton Company	6,528	00	
Lawrence Company	8,160	00	
Lowell Bleachery	1,632	00	
Lowell Corporation	5,974	84	
Lowell Machine-shop	3,264	00	
Massachusetts Mills	9,792	00	
Merrimack River Lumber Co.	183	60	
Merrimack Company	13,600	00	
Middlesex Company	5,440	00	
Suffolk Company	3,264	00	
Tremont Company	3,264	00	
Proprietors of Locks & Canals	1,142	06	

THE LAWS OF THE CURRENCY OF IRELAND.

JAMES WILLIAM GILBART, F. R. S., the author of a "Practical Treatise on Banking," "Lectures on Ancient Commerce," &c., published in former volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and General Manager of the London and Westminster Bank, recently read before a meeting of the British Association, at Belfast, Ireland, a paper on the laws of the currency in Ireland, as exemplified in the changes that have taken place in the amount of the circulation of bank notes in Ireland, since the passing of the Act of 1845. We give the following abstract of Mr. Gilbart's paper, as we find it reported in the Belfast *Mercantile Journal*:—

In 1845, the average amount of notes that had been in circulation during the year ending May 1, 1845—£6,354,594—was made the fixed or authorized issue. For any amount beyond its authorized issue, each bank was required to hold an equal amount in gold or silver coin, the silver not to exceed one-fourth of the gold coin. The Act came into operation on the 6th December, 1845; and from that period each bank has made returns to the Government, stating the average amount of notes in circulation during the preceding four weeks, distinguishing the notes under £5 from those of £5 and upwards, and stating the amounts of gold and silver coin it held in its vaults. These returns were made by all the banks of circulation in Ireland. These are—the Bank of Ireland, the Provincial Bank of Ireland, the National Bank of Ireland, the National Bank of Clonmel, the National Bank of Carrick-on-Suir, and the three banks of Belfast, viz: the Northern Bank, the Belfast Banking Company, and the Ulster Banking Company. We possess returns for every four weeks from January, 1846, to the present time. By adding together all the returns made during each year, and then dividing by thirteen, we obtain, of course, the average amounts in circulation from 1846 to the year 1851, inclusive. The proportion per cent these averages bear to the certified circulation of £6,354,494, is also dated hereunder.

	Ave. Circulation.	Proportion to Certified Circulation.
1846	7,259,949	114.25
1847.....	6,008,881	94.55
1848.....	4,828,849	76
1849.....	4,310,263	67.83
1850.....	4,512,442	71
1851.....	4,462,908	70.25

From this table it appears that if the authorized issue be represented by the number 100, the actual circulation for the six years, 1846 to 1851 inclusive, will be represented by the numbers, 114, 94, 76, 67, 71, 70.

The question naturally occurs to us, what is the cause of this great falling off in the annual circulation since the passing of the Act of 1845? The amount of notes in circulation does not correspond with the amount of gold in the bank of England; for the amount of gold in the Bank of England is, at the present time, much higher than it was on the 1st of May, 1845; although the Irish notes in circulation are much less. There were three negative laws of the currency in Ireland, namely, that the amount of notes in circulation is not regulated by the Act of Parliament, nor by the wishes of the Irish bankers, nor by the stock of gold in the Bank of England. Notes are issued in Ireland chiefly for the purpose of purchasing agricultural produce; it would seem to follow that the amount of notes put into circulation will be regulated mainly by the quantity of that produce and by the price at which it is purchased.

If then, we found that in the years since 1845, the quantity of agricultural produce has been less, or the price at which it has been sold has been less, and especially if both these circumstances should have occurred, then have we an adequate cause for a reduction of the amount of bank notes in circulation. The annual productiveness of the harvest would affect the amount of notes in circulation. Again, a bad harvest in one year may, by the distress it produces, cause a less production of commodities in several following years, and hence there may be a less demand for bank notes. A bad harvest produces distress among the farmers, and this distress affects the amount of the circulation in two ways:—

First, the farmer consumes his own produce instead of selling it, and thus requires not the use of notes. Secondly, the distress of the farmer diminishes the instruments of reproduction.

If he has no potatoes, he can rear no pigs. An abundant crop of potatoes produces in the following year an abundant crop of pigs. After the failure of the potato in 1846, the exportation of swine was reduced from 480,827, in 1846, to 106,407. The potato crop again failed in 1848. The number of swine exported in 1848 was 110,787, in 1849 it was only 68,053.. The destruction of pigs which took place in 1846, would doubtless affect the circulation of notes in subsequent years, especially in 1847, 1848 and 1849, and probably to a certain extent in the years 1850 and 1851. A reduction in the quantity of commodities produced may be caused by a reduction in the number of producers, and this would occasion a less demand for bank notes; and the amount of notes that circulate in a country will also be affected by the quantity of commodities exported and the quantity imported. We find that the reduction in the amount of notes in circulation in Ireland had been preceded or accompanied by a reduction in the amount of commodities produced, occasioned by a reduced productiveness in the land actually cultivated, a destruction in the instruments of reproduction by the distress thus occasioned, a reduction in the number of producers by deaths and emigration, and the exportation of an increased portion of its capital in exchange for food.

But there was another circumstance that concurred in powerfully producing the same effect, that is, the price at which the commodities brought to market were sold.

From the whole we infer, that the difference between the amount of bank notes circulating in a country at two different periods, cannot be regarded as any correct test of the condition of its inhabitants at those two periods, unless we take into account all the circumstances by which that difference is attended—that the decline of the circulation of bank notes in Ireland from the year 1845 to 1851, is no accurate measure of the distress that has existed in the country, or that now exists, as other causes besides distress have concurred in producing that effect—that in comparing the circulation of 1845 and 1851, we are making a comparison unfavorable to the country, as the year 1845 was a year remarkable for the high amount of its circulation—and that we should indulge in no desponding inferences as to the condition of the country, even if the circulation should never recover its former amount. Even the permanent reduction of the circulation to its present amount would be no conclusive evidence of the distressed condition of the country; for though distress first caused this decline, yet from the new circumstances which that distress introduced, the same amount of bank notes are not now necessary for conducting its operations.

Among the causes assigned for the circulation of the English banks, are the establishment of the penny postage, the introduction of railways, the decline in the price of corn, and the extension of the practice of keeping banking accounts. These causes have also operated in Ireland, while there are other causes, such as consolidation of small farms, and the cultivation of flax instead of corn, that will tend to produce the same effects.

Even increasing prosperity will not always increase the amount of notes in circulation—sometimes the reverse, for as nations become wealthy they learn to economize the currency. Large transactions are settled by checks on banks or bills of exchange, and notes are employed only in making payments of small amount. We cannot here enlarge on these topics. We can only recommend the study of the variations on circulations of bank notes in Ireland, since the year 1845, as one fruitful illustration of most important principles, and suggestive of many practical lessons. Here the man of business may obtain guidance, the man of science may gather wisdom, and the statesman may receive instruction.

SCARCITY OF SILVER COIN IN EUROPE.

The same scarcity of coin experienced in the United States, prevails throughout the European Continent, as will be seen from the subjoined paragraph which we copy from the *London Times*:—

There never was known for many years so great a scarcity of silver currency as at present, in consequence of the very large exportations of silver that have recently taken place to Port Philip, Melbourne, Geelong, Sydney, and other ports of Australian colonies for the convenience of the adventurers at the "gold diggins." Not a vessel leaves the ports of London, Plymouth, Bristol, Liverpool, &c., but takes out a considerable amount of both gold and silver specie, either by speculators who are proceeding to the above colonies for the purpose of making large purchases of gold from the emi-

grants now working at the diggins, or consigned by capitalists and bullion dealers to their agents at Port Philip, &c., for the same specific purpose. It is with much difficulty that the bankers in the city and West End can obtain silver currency to any amount either at the Bank of England or at the Royal Mint, to accommodate their correspondents in different parts of the United Kingdom with silver coinage.

At Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, and other large commercial towns, the demand at the various banks for silver is so great, that they are unable to supply parties with more than £100 to £200, as not only is a vast quantity being shipped off to Australia and India, but the demands for silver bullion and specie for France, Belgium, Holland, Hamburg and the Continent, are also very extensive.

In consequence of this immense call for silver, it appears that the authorities at the mint intend having a considerable sum coined into specie, and likewise gold currency of half sovereigns and sovereigns for the convenience of the emigrants, who are placed in great difficulties from the want of a small circulating medium in exchange for their gold.

BRITISH CONSOLS AND THE NATIONAL DEBT.

We copy from the *London Illustrated News* the following interesting statement touching British Consols and the reduction of the national debt of England.

Last week Consols were called at par, the Three per Cents were at 100, and there was great cheering on the Stock Exchange. Only once before in the present century has this circumstance happened, and only three times before since the national debt became a great national burden. We will lay before our readers a few interesting particulars connected with the subject.

The practice of borrowing money for a perpetuity, or on interminable annuities, was begun in the reign of William III. Previous sovereigns were borrowers; but their loans were for a limited period, and were repaid when their wars were at an end. He and his immediate successors borrowed without any intention to repay, and began a debt that has since been increased to the amount, in 1851, exclusive of unfunded debt, of £769,272,562. Instead of borrowing money as private individuals do at some current rate of interest, it was from an early period customary with the government to fix the rate of interest, generally at 3 per cent., and as the market rate was high or low to promise to pay a larger or smaller amount of principal. Hence the mass of the debt was contracted in a 3 per cent stock, and the amount of the debt was augmented nearly two-fifths more than the sum actually lent to the government.

In 1751, the different Three per Cent Stocks were consolidated into one stock, which has ever since been known by the name of consols, and, with successive additions has ever since formed a portion of the national debt. Prior to that consolidation the Three per cents rose in 1737 to 107, the highest point they ever reached. Again, in 1749, they rose to 100, and from that time to 1844 they were always below par. In 1844 consols were at 101¼, and on Friday last they reached 100, being only the second time consols have been at par since they were created, and only the fourth time within 160 years that a 3 per cent annuity in perpetuity has been worth £100, or more than £100.

The funds have undergone some fearful vicissitudes. In 1700, on the death of the King of Spain, they fell to 50 per cent, "whereby," says the historian, "great distress ensued to many." After the peace of Utrecht, in 1715, they rapidly rose; and between 1730 and the rebellion in 1745, they were never below 89; but during the rebellion in 1745 they sank to 76. They fell to 53⅝ in 1782, at the close of the American war; and, mounting afterwards to 97½ in 1792, fell, in September, 1797, to 47½. This was the lowest they ever reached. Between that and the highest point, 107, attained in the year 1737, the difference was equivalent to 117 per cent, sufficient to annihilate many fortunes, or to confer great wealth on those who purchased when the funds were at the lowest.

It is customary to speak with approbation of the high price of stocks, and it is advantageous to stockholders wishing to sell; but it is the reverse of advantageous to those who wish to buy. To possess one hundred pounds in the 3 per cent, means a right to claim from the government a perpetual annuity of £3. The price of annuities varies with the interest of money; and as that is high, as a sum doubles itself in fourteen or twenty-one years, a proportionate less sum paid down will purchase an annuity. A high price of the funds, or the necessity of giving a large sum for an annuity, is equivalent to a low rate of interest for money; and, as a high rate of interest is a proof of high profit and of successful industry, a high price of the funds is

not considered a good sign by political economists. The security offered by our government has undergone no change for the last thirty years, and as it gave £3 a year to receive £75 or £96, the interest of money in the market was comparatively high or low. To all borrowers a low rate of interest is advantageous; to all lenders, the reverse; and thus, as we are borrowers or lenders, we speak of a high price of the funds as advantageous or disadvantageous.

A high price of the funds being equivalent to a low rate of interest, whenever the funds have risen to par or above it, the interest of the national debt has been reduced, or an expectation has prevailed that it would be reduced. It is now talked of, but apparently without reason, as consols have declined, and their immense amount (about £380,000,000) will prevent the reduction of interest upon them, unless the interest of money remains permanently low, and consols rise and continue above par.

The first reduction of interest was made by Sir Robert Walpole in 1716, when, being enabled to borrow at a low rate, he induced the national creditors to accept a lower rate than they had lent their money at. In 1794 a similar operation was carried into effect by Mr. Pelham, a brother of the then Duke of Newcastle. No similar reduction was possible from that period almost to our own times. In 1822 Mr. Vansittart reduced the interest on a 5 five per cent stock to 4 per cent; and in 1824, Mr. Robinson, the present Earl of Ripon, reduced the 4 per cent stock to 3½. In 1830 Mr. Goulburn followed the same course, and reduced the new 4 per cents to 3½; and in 1844 he reduced the 3½ to 3¼, to become 3 per cent stock in 1854. By the several reductions of interest, it is estimated (what Sir Robert Walpole saved is not stated) that—

Mr. Pelham saved per year.....	£655,000
Mr. Vansittart " "	1,230,000
Mr. Robinson " "	875,000
Mr. Goulburn, in 1830.....	778,000
" " 1844.....	625,000
Total.....	£3,563,000

To which must be added the prospective saving to take place in 1854 of £625,000, and making a total annual reduction of charge by a reduction in the rate of interest of £4,188,000. Notwithstanding that reduction, the annual charge was not less in 1850 than £27,902,572; and we cannot flatter our readers with the hope of any further reduction at present. Californian and Australian gold has had no effect in raising price, very little effect in lowering the rate of interest, which was lower in 1844 than in 1852, and giving no reasonable prospect of, as some persons have said, facilitating the liquidation of the national debt.

ASSAY OFFICE AT ADELAIDE FOR AUSTRALIAN GOLD.

The government of Great Britain has appointed an assay office at Adelaide, at which gold, of a not less quantity than twenty ounces, shall be received and weighed, and a receipt given for the weight; the same shall then be assayed, converted into ingots, stamped, and delivered at a bank, to be named in the receipt, to, or to the order of, the owner, for the weight deliverable; two parts out of every hundred to be taken; one for the expense of the assay, and the other to be deposited in the treasury in case of the correctness being disputed. It may afterwards be reassayed. In exchange for such assayed and stamped gold, the banks shall pay at the rate of £3 11s. per ounce in notes, which they may issue to the value of the gold bullion they shall so acquire. The banks are allowed to issue notes to three times the value of their coin: so that for every £100 of coin they may issue £300 of notes. These proportions are to be strictly adhered to, under a penalty of £100 for every failure. Accounts to be furnished to the treasury every week of the notes in circulation, and the coin and bullion held. The notes of banks to be a legal tender, so long as they pay on demand in coin or bullion, by all except the banks themselves. Ingots stamped at the assay office shall be a legal tender by the banks in payment of notes, bills, and checks, at the rate of £3 11s. per ounce. Forgery, &c., to be punished with imprisonment and hard labor, for a period not more than fifteen years, and not less than two years. The act to continue in force for twelve months.

THE SMALL NOTE LAW OF MARYLAND.

The following is the law passed at the last session of the Maryland Legislatu re "to prevent the circulation of notes or bills of a less denomination than five dollars."

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland, That on and after the first day of October, eighteen hundred and fifty-two, it shall not be lawful for any person, firm, or association of persons, corporation or body politic, to pay out, circulate or receive in payment of any debt, any bank note, promissory note, or other obligation, payable to bearer, or indorsed in blank or to bearer, or any other note, token, scrip, or device whatsoever, devised or intended for circulation as currency, issued out of the limits of this State, of a less denomination than five dollars, under the penalty of five dollars for each and every offence, to be recovered by an action of debt in the name of the State, before any justice of the State.

SEC. 2. And be it enacted, That one-half of the penalty recovered in any case under the act shall go to the informer, and the residue shall be paid to the collector of county or city taxes for the use of the county or city where the same may be prosecuted for; and in all cases the informer shall be a competent witness.

SEC. 3. And be it enacted, That in case any person against whom any judgment may be rendered for the penalty provided by this act, shall not immediately pay the same and costs of the prosecution, or give security satisfactory to the justice rendering the judgment, for the payment, he shall be committed to prison, there to remain until the same shall be paid, or until the expiration of ten days from the date of the commitment, whichever shall first occur.

SEC. 4. And be it enacted, That from and after the first day of March, eighteen hundred and fifty-three, it shall not be lawful for any bank, savings institution, corporation, or body politic, of this State, or for any person or association of persons, to make, issue or pay out any note or device, of the nature and character described in the preceding section of this act, of a less denomination than five dollars, under the penalty prescribed in the said section for each offence, and to be recovered in the same manner.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

The circulation, deposits, specie, and discounts of the Banks of South Carolina, according to the official statement of August 31, 1852, have been as follows:—

	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Discounts.
Bank State South Carolina.....	$1,575,027	$484,297	$92,283	$2,196,460
Branch Columbia	.....	119,727	4,577	1,105,588
Branch Camden	.....	27,547	2,493	430,685
S. W. Railroad.....	438,954	221,247	86,613	409,989
Planters' and Mechanics'.....	354,020	270,547	167,172	1,045,270
Union Charleston.....	218,355	173,372	106,463	700,187
Bank South Carolina.....	360,162	263,506	144,468	860,956
State Bank, South Carolina.....	459,285	291,598	114,326	936,187
Total	$3,406,298	$1,851,841	$721,845	$7,685,823

FINANCES OF THE ROMAN STATES.

In the *Budget* for the current year the income is stated at 60,000,000 francs, the expenditure at 69,300,000 francs. The income, divided by the number of the population, gives an average of 19 francs 65 centimes of taxes per head.

The Pope's civil list, the keeping in repair of his palaces, of the museums, the expenses of the noble guard, the Swiss troops, the salaries of the Sacred College, of the Nuncios, and the Roman diplomatic body, cost annually.....francs	3,300,000
The public debt amounts to.....	21,000,000
The army costs.....	10,000,000
Public works.....	2,800,000
Public instruction.....	500,000
The pensions amount to.....	5,000,000

ARITHMETICAL ACCUMULATION OF MONEY.

Kellogg, in his "Labor and other Capital," forcibly illustrates the accumulation of capital from various rates of interest. A late French writer says, that a sum of money, invested at 5 per cent, compound interest, is doubled in fourteen years and some months, quadrupled in less than thirty years, octupled in less than forty-five years, and so on. From this it would appear that if a centime had been placed out at such interest, *pro bono publico*, in the year 800, when Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of the West, the 30,000,000 Frenchmen inhabiting the country at the revolution in 1830, would have enjoyed an income of 100,000,000,000 francs.

Such arithmetically true and economically impossible results of old deposits, are made the groundwork of some work of fiction; but writers of another class are obliged to attend to the obvious fact, that in order to effect such an accumulation of capital the business of the bankers and the wealth of the community would require the increase in the same proportion. Money does not breed spontaneously. The party to whom it is entrusted must use his money in such a way as to enable him not only to pay the interest, but to derive a profit from the transaction.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI.

In another part of the present number of the "*Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review*" will be found a review of the Trade and Commerce of Cincinnati for the year ending August 31st, 1852. We give below tabular statements of the imports and exports, destination of specified articles, value of principal products, and prices of the same for the year ending August 31st, 1852. For similar statistics, for previous years, the reader is referred to the *Merchants' Magazine* for October, 1851, (vol. xxv., pp. 485–489,) and the volumes of this Magazine from its commencement in 1839:—

DESTINATION OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM THE PORT OF CINCINNATI DURING THE YEAR 1851–52, COMMENCING THE FIRST DAY OF SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING THE LAST OF AUGUST.

Commodities.	To New Orleans.	To other down river ports.	To up river ports.	Via canals & railways.	By flat-boats.
Beef.....bbls.	16,614	393	1,021	1,987	16
Beef.....tcs.	7,789	29	941	264	10
Butter.....bbls.	1,731	755	90	430	....
Butter ...firkins & kegs	25,045	4,551	648	1,151	1,049
Corn.....sacks	7,398	2,364	38,331	3,138	1,320
Cheese	60,119	79,178	4,746	6,646	4,073
Candles.....	53,164	33,188	17,615	17,760	717
Cotton .....bales	25	35	6,912	1,838	....
Coffee.....sacks	5	13,749	9,081	20,810	22
Flour.....bbls.	309,589	85,712	11,107	1,803	135,466
Iron .....pieces	4,673	87,306	9,226	71,204	....
Iron.....bdls.	738	21,598	2,464	11,568	66
Iron..... tons	62	2,079	1,642	7,546	270
Lard.....bbls.	26,749	482	6,099	14,535	410
Lard.....kegs	87,769	4,863	5,910	17,303	5,697
Lard oil.....bbls.	10,120	2,977	4,951	6,782	....
Linseed oil	3,181	2,089	1,391	2,716	11
Molasses.....	.....	4,294	25,154	19,418	....
Pork.....hhds.	22,577	2,351	14,917	4,088	727
Pork .....tcs.	12,422	760	12,373	8,843	260
Pork .....bbls.	117,007	2,968	5,173	6,412	2,095
Pork .....lbs.	1,556,010	581,385	1,471,358	575,230	575,230
Soap.....bxs.	5,486	14,266	4,278	4,003	219
Sugar..... hhds.	6	2,005	8,144	10,205	....
Whisky.....bbls.	148,848	46,736	48 736	8,520	27,440

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO THE PORT OF CINCINNATI DURING THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Articles.	Total imports.	Average value.	Total value.
Apples, green.....bbls.	71,182	$1 60	$106,844
Beef.....	1,609	9 00	14,481
Beef.....tcs.	1,145	15 00	14,885
Bagging..... pcs.	71	2 00	142
Barley..... .....bushels	49,994	45	40,447
Beans.....	14,137	1 60	21,219
Butter..... .....barrels	10,203	25 00	255,075
Butter..... ...firkins & kegs	13,720	13 00	178,360
Blooms.....tons	4,036	50 00	201,800
Bran, &c .....cks.	131,014	50	65,507
Candles.....boxes	653	2 00	1,632
Corn.....bushels	653,788	30	196,136
Corn meal.....	8,640	40	3,456
Cider.....barrels	874	3 00	2,622
Cheese.....cks.	46	12 00	552
Cheese.....boxes	251,753	2 40	604,141
Cotton.....bales	12,776	50 00	638,800
Coffee..... sks.	95,732	17 00	1,627,444
Codfish.....drums	431	25 00	10,775
Cooperage..... pcs.	135,118	60	81,070
Eggs..... bxs. & bbls.	10,544	4 00	42,166
Flour.....bbls.	511,042	3 20	1,635,334
Feathers.....sks.	6,716	12 00	80,592
Fish, sund.....bbls.	20,076	9 50	190,722
Fish.....kegs & kits.	1,075	2 00	2,150
Fruit, dried..... bushels	24,877	2 00	49,754
Grease.....barrels	1,936	15 00	29,040
Glass.....boxes	44,004	2 25	99,009
Glassware..... packages	36,602	4 40	18,265
Hemp.....bdls. & bales	18,334	25 50	467,517
Hides, loose.....	54,647	2 40	27,269
Hides, green.....lbs.	54,905	4½	1,557
Hay.....bales	9,270	2 50	23,195
Herrings.....boxes	5,149	50	2,574
Hogs.....head	410,210	9 00	3,691,890
Hops..... .....bales	1,591	60 00	95,460
Iron and steel.....pcs.	194,107	1 45	291,160
Iron and steel.....bdls.	54,078	3 75	202,729
Iron and steel.....tons	10,111	24 00	242,664
Lead.....pigs	54,733	3 12	171,040
Lard.....barrels	36,047	21 00	756,987
Lard.....kegs	32,283	4 25	137,201
Leather.....bdls.	11,384	9 60	102,456
Lemons.....boxes	4,434	5 00	22,170
Lime.....barrels	64,817	80	51,853
Liquors.....hhds. & pipes	3,162	90 00	284,580
Molasses..... barrels	93,132	13 00	1,117,584
Malt..... .....bushels	33,220	60	29,889
Nails..... kegs	64,189	3 00	192,567
Oil..... barrels	8,395	28 00	232,540
Oranges ....bxs. & bbls.	4,547	6 00	27,280
Oakum.....bales	1,843	12 00	22,116
Oats..... bushels	197,868	25 00	49,467
Oil cake..... lbs.	247,400	½	1,237
Pork and bacon..... hhds.	10,338	45 00	465,214
Pork and bacon.....tcs.	1,987	22 00	43,714
Pork and bacon.....barrels	22,501	15 00	337,515
Pork and bacon.....bulk	16,532,884	6	991,973
Potatoes .....barrels	20,739	1 25	25,923
Pig metal.....tons	22,605	24 00	543,570

Articles.	Total imports.	Average value.	Total value.
Pimento and pepper.....bags	1,425	13 00	18,525
Rye.....bushels	58,317	50	29,158
Rosin, tar, &c..... barrels	14,184	3 50	49,644
Raisins.....boxes	28,417	2 00	56,834
Rope, twine, &c.....packages	3,203	5 00	16,015
Rice.....tcs.	3,782	25 00	94,550
Sugar..... hhds.	39,224	58 00	2,274,992
Sugar..... barrels	15,237	14 00	213,318
Sugar..... boxes	2,259	30 00	67,770
Seed, flax..... barrels	48,074	3 00	144,222
Seed, grass.....	10,819	11 00	119,019
Seed, hemp.....	304	1 50	456
Salt.....sks.	91,312	1 30	118,705
Salt.....barrels	58,020	1 50	87,030
Shot.....kegs	1,688	17 00	28,596
Tea.....packages	12,310	25 00	320,250
Tobacco..... hhds.	11,469	46 00	527,160
Tobacco..... bales	1,996	4 00	9,984
Tobacco..... bxs. & kegs	23,060	20 00	461,200
Tallow.....barrels	5,930	15 00	88,950
Wines..... bbls. & ¼ casks	4,482	35 00	156,870
Wines..... bkts. & boxes	8,322	10 00	83,220
Wheat..... bushels	377,037	60	226,422
Wool.....bales	4,562	50 00	228,100
Whisky.....barrels	272,788	6 75	1,773,122
Yarns, cotton.....packages	10,836	1 50	16,254
Yarns.....bales	167,002	1 75	622,507
Total value.....			$24,715,331

[NOTE.—In the above, we have not included dry goods, hardware, queensware, and sundry miscellaneous articles which, with those mentioned, come under the head of merchandise. It would be utterly impossible to make an estimate of these articles, coal and lumber are also omitted—no correct statement of the amount imported being obtainable. In the above calculation we have given as nearly as possible the correct average value, and we believe the aggregate is below rather than above the actual amount. The value of the total imports at this port is not less than forty millions.—EDITOR.]

IMPORTS INTO CINCINNATI FOR THE YEAR COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1851, AND ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Apples, green..... bbls.	71,182	Eggs..... bxs. & bbls.	10,544
Beef.....	1,609	Flour..... bbls.	511,042
Beef.....tcs.	1,145	Feathers.....sks.	6,716
Bagging..... .....pcs.	71	Fish, sund..... bbls.	20,076
Barley.....	89,994	Fish..... kegs & kits	1,075
Beans.....	14,137	Fruit, dried.....bush.	24,847
Butter.....bbls.	10,208	Grease..... bbls.	1,936
Butter.....firk. & kegs.	13,720	Glass.....bxs.	44,004
Blooms .....tons	4,036	Glassware.....pkgs.	36,602
Bran, &c.....sks.	131,014	Hemp.....bdls. & bales	18,334
Candles..... bxs.	653	Hides.....loose	54,647
Corn..... .... bush.	653,788	Hides, green..... lbs.	54,905
Corn meal.....	8,640	Hay.....bales	9,270
Cider..... bbls.	874	Herring.....bxs.	5,194
Cheese.....cks.	46	Hogs.....head	160,684
Cheese.....bxs.	241,753	Hops.....bales	1,591
Cotton.....bales	12,776	Iron & steel.....pcs.	194,107
Coffee.....sks.	95,732	Iron & steel.....bdls.	54,078
Codfish.....drums	431	Iron & steel.....tons	10,111
Cooperage .....pcs.	135,118	Lead.....pigs	54,773

Lard	bbls.	36,047	
Lard	kegs	32,283	
Leather	bdls.	11,884	
Lemons	bxs.	4,434	
Lime	bbls.	64,817	
Liquors	hhds. & tcs.	3,162	
Merchandise and sund	pks.	458,703	
Merchandise and sund	tons	1,958	
Molasses	bbls.	93,132	
Malt	bush.	33,220	
Nails	kegs	64,189	
Oil	bbls.	8,305	
Oranges	bxs. & bbls.	4,547	
Oakum	bales	1,843	
Oats	bush.	197,868	
Oil cake	lbs.	247,400	
Pork & bacon	hhds.	10,333	
Pork & bacon	tcs.	1,987	
Pork & bacon	bbls.	22,501	
Pork in bulk	lbs.	16,532,884	
Potatoes	bbls.	20,739	
Pig metal	tons	22,605	
Pimento & pepper	bags	1,425	
Rye	bush.	58,317	
Rosin, &c.	bbls.	14,184	
Raisins	bxs.	28,417	
Rope, Twine, &c.		2,203	
Rice	tcs.	3,782	
Sugar	hhds.	39,224	
Sugar	bbls.	15,237	
Sugar	bxs.	2,259	
Seed, flax	bbls.	48,074	
Seed, grass		10,819	
Seed, hemp		304	
Salt	sks.	91,312	
Salt	bbls.	58,020	
Shot	kegs	1,688	
Tea	pkgs.	12,910	
Tobacco	hhds.	11,410	
Tobacco	bales	1,996	
Tobacco	boxes & kegs	23,000	
Tallow	bbls.	5,980	
Wines	bbls. & ½ casks	4,482	
Wines	basket & boxes	8,322	
Wheat	bush.	377,037	
Wool	bales	4,562	
Whisky	bbls.	272,788	
Cotton yarn	pkgs.	10,836	
Cotton yarn	bales	167,002	

EXPORTS FROM CINCINNATI FOR THE YEAR COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1851, AND ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Apples, green	bbls.	7,223	
Alcohol		7,607	
Beef		20,015	
Beef	tcs.	9,023	
Beans	bbls.	1,611	
Brooms	doz.	7,934	
Butter	bbls.	3,066	
Butter	firkins & kegs	31,395	
Bran, &c.	sks.	10,543	
Bagging	pcs.	12,918	
Corn	sks.	51,231	
Corn meal	bbls.	928	
Cheese	casks	71	
Cheese	bxs.	150,689	
Candles		121,717	
Cattle	head	1,840	
Cotton	bales	8,810	
Coffee	sks.	43,654	
Cooperage	pcs.	64,279	
Eggs	bbls.	9,160	
Flour		408,211	
Feathers	sks.	7,876	
Fruit, dried	bush.	6,413	
Grease	bbls.	4,782	
Grass seed		7,587	
Horses	head	944	
Hay	bales	554	
Hemp	bales	3,616	
Hides	lbs.	142,823	
Hides	No.	31,775	
Iron	pcs.	172,409	
Iron	bdls.	86,368	
Iron	tons	11,329	
Lard	bbls.	47,862	
Lard	kegs	115,845	
Lard oils	bbls.	24,380	
Linseed oil		9,377	
Molasses		48,866	
Oil cake	tons	1,601	
Oats	sks.	2,718	
Potatoes	bbls.	23,844	
Pork & bacon	hhds.	43,933	
Pork & bacon	tcs.	34,398	
Pork & bacon	bbls.	131,560	
Pork & bacon, in bulk	lbs.	2,372	
Pork	boxes	3,912,943	
Rope, &c.	pkgs.	9,365	
Soap	boxes	28,033	
Sheep	head	45	
Sugar	hhds.	20,360	
Salt	bbls.	27,022	
Salt	sks.	16,314	
Seed, flax	bbls.	3,520	
Sundry merchandise	pkgs.	656,793	
Sundry merchandise	tons	11,241	
Sundry liquors	bbls.	49,348	
Sundry manufactures	pcs.	66,200	
Sundry produce	pkgs.	42,333	
Starch	boxes	18,293	
Tallow		3,039	
Tobacco	boxes & kegs	24,761	
Tobacco	hhds.	10,821	
Tobacco	bales	629	
Vinegar	bbls.	5,965	
Whisky		276,124	
Wool	bales	3,404	
Wool	lbs.	2,972	
White lead	kegs	65,514	
Castings	pieces	33,942	
Castings	tons	1,629	

AVERAGE PRICES OF MERCHANDISE IN CINCINNATI, 1851–52.

AVERAGE PRICES OF NEW ORLEANS MOLASSES AND SUGAR, WESTERN RESERVE CHEESE, RIO COFFEE, MESS PORK, WHEAT, FLOUR, LARD, HAMS, ETC.

Months.	N. O. mol's.	W. R. che'e.	Rio coffee.	N. O. su'r.	Corn.	Mess pork.	Flour.	Wheat.	Prime keg lard.	Plain ha's.
September	33½	6½	9½	6½	34	15.28	3.14	59	10½	9
October	34½	6½	9½	6	34	13.30	3.15	59	9	8
November	37½	6⅝	9½	6½	31½	12.50	2.99	58	7½	8
December	35	6½	9⅝	5⅝	29	12 25	3.04	58	7½	..
January	28	6½	9½	5⅛	28	12.61	3.09	59	7⅛	..
February	27⅞	6¼	9⅛	5	28	13.84	3.30	59½	8½	8⅞
March	30	7	10½	5½	28	14.75	3.26	62	8⅝	8¼
April	31	6½	10½	5⅝	27	16.30	3.12	62	9¼	9
May	33	6½	10½	5⅝	28	16.45	3.20	61	10½	9½
June	34	6	10	5½	30	17.62	3.21	63	10	9½
July	34	6	9½	5½	32½	19.75	3.19	62	10	9⅝
August	35½	6½	9⅛	5⅛	39½	19.00	3.19	59	11½	9½

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM CINCINNATI TO NEW ORLEANS.

RATES OF FREIGHT FOR FLOUR, PORK, AND WHISKY FROM CINCINNATI TO NEW ORLEANS, AT THE CLOSE OF EACH MONTH THE PAST TWO YEARS.

	Flour.		Pork.		Whisky.	
	50–51.	51–52.	50–51.	51–52.	50–51.	51–52.
September ..... per bbl.	$1 00	..	..	..	1 50	2 50
October	75	..	..	..	1 00	2 00
November	50	40	60	60	75	1 75
December	45	75	65	1 00	75	1 25
January	60	60	75	80	1 00	1 00
February	55	60	75	75	1 00	1 00
March	40	50	50	65	50	85
April	35	30	50	35	60	50
May	35	30	40	35	50	45
June	40	45	60	..	65	75
July	75	75	90	..	1 00	1 50
August	60	75	90	..	1 00	1 50

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM CINCINNATI TO PITTSBURG.

RATES OF FREIGHT FOR WHISKY AND OTHER MERCHANDISE FROM CINCINNATI TO PITTSBURG, AT THE CLOSE OF EACH MONTH FOR THE LAST THREE YEARS.

	Whisky per bbl.			Pound freight, per 100 lbs.		
	49–50.	50–51.	51–52.	49–50.	50–51.	51–52.
September	..	50	1 00	..	15	37
October	50	50	1 00	55	15	30
November	35	35	30	12½	12½	12
December	35	30	45	12½	12½	18
January	40	40	50	12½	12½	15
February	35	40	45	10	12½	14
March	30	45	50	10	14	15
April	35	40	40	10	12½	12
May	35	33	37	10	10	10
June	75	75	60	20	25	15
July	60	40	1 50	20	12½	50
August	65	33	1 00	20	12½	20

EXPORTS OF RICE FROM SAVANNAH.

The exports of rice in casks from Savannah, (Georgia,) according to a statement in the *Republican*, have been for the last twelve years as follows:—

1851–52	39,929	1847–48	30,136	1843–44	28,543
1850–51	35,602	1846–47	31,739	1842–43	26,263
1849–50	42,792	1845–46	32,147	1841–42	22,065
1848–49	37,848	1844–45	29,217	1840–41	23,587

LEADING EXPORTS OF CHARLESTON.

The Charleston (S. C.) *Courier* furnishes the subjoined statement of the export of cotton, rice, and lumber from that port during the year ending 31st August, 1852:—

EXPORTS OF COTTON AND RICE FROM SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1851, TO AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

	Sea Island. Bales.	Upland. Bales.	Rice. Trcs.
Liverpool	15,635	179,650	5,678
Scotland	.....	3,516	5
Other British ports	.....	8,419	7,206
Total Great Britain	15,635	191,585	12,889
Havre	3,373	35,389	3,100
Marseilles	....	1,482	...
Other French ports	....	3,706	1,199
Total to France	3,373	40,577	4,299
Holland	....	2,622	2,867
Belgium	....	5,346	6,714
North of Europe	....	8,272	18,714
Total to North of Europe	....	16,240	37,265
South of Europe	....	22,025	.....
West Indies, &c.	....	.....	20,770
Total to foreign ports	19,008	270,427	65,253
Boston	92	19,901	4,101
Rhode Island, &c.	21	715	20
New York	3,192	144,045	21,506
Philadelphia	....	24,548	5,041
Baltimore and Norfolk	....	10,336	3,568
New Orleans, &c.	....	.....	17,274
Other United States ports	....	.....	19
Total coastwise	3,305	199,605	61,524
Total foreign	19,008	270,427	65,253
Grand total	32,313	470,032	126,777

EXPORTS OF ROUGH RICE AND LUMBER FROM SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1851, TO AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

	Rough rice. Bush.	Lumber. Feet.
Liverpool	38,856	378,866
London	142,857	.....
Other British ports	.....	263,523
Total to Great Britain	181,713	642,389
Havre	53	60,018
Bordeaux	18,484	7,360
Other French ports	.....	15,064
Total to France	18,538	82,442
North of Europe	210,289	421,559
South of Europe	.....	1,568,706
West Indies, &c.	.....	1,960,980
Total to foreign ports	410,540	4,676,076

	Rough rice. Bush.	Lumber. Feet.
Boston	7,874	1,811,778
Rhode Island	.....	4,818,429
New York	44,176	1,585,848
Philadelphia	.....	1,781,749
Baltimore and Norfolk	.....	2,370,162
Other United States ports	.....	1,256,724
Total coastwise	52,050	13,624,690
Total foreign ports	410,540	4,676,076
Grand total	462,590	18,300,766

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM SAVANNAH.

The exports of cotton from the port of Savannah (Georgia) for the two years ending on the 1st of September, 1851 and 1852, have been as follows:—

	1851–52.		1850–51.	
	Sea Island.	Upland.	Sea Island.	Upland.
Liverpool	6,052	96,364	7,410	122,228
Other British ports	501	6,461	397	7,108
Total Great Britain	6,553	102,825	7,807	120,336
Havre	1,052	11,541	690	10,546
Other French ports	....	.....	....	590
Total France	1,052	11,541	690	11,136
Other foreign ports	....	2,483	....	4,676
Total foreign ports	7,605	116,849	8,497	145,150
Boston	108	80,291	205	22,632
Providence	....	3,074	....	1,633
New York	2,427	145,877	2,599	118,828
Philadelphia	....	17,951	....	10,835
Baltimore and Norfolk	....	4,527	....	8,366
Charleston	1,121	17,638	341	8,308
Other United States ports	....	5,600	....	40
Total coastwise	3,656	224,958	3,145	160,642
Total foreign ports	7,605	116,849	8,497	145,150
Grand total	11,261	341,807	11,642	305,792

THE LUMBER TRADE OF SAVANNAH.

The lumber business at the port of Savannah, (Georgia,) according to the *Republican*, has increased rapidly within the last few years; and it will be seen by the following table that the exports for the past year have exceeded those of any previous one by several millions of feet. We would remark that each year closes on the 1st of September:—

1851–52..feet	25,506,500	1847–48..feet	16,449,558	1843–44..feet	5,933,351
1850–51.....	17,764,300	1846–47.....	10,731,388	1842–43.....	7,519,550
1849–50.....	17,719,100	1845–46.....	18,585,644	1841–42.....	8,390,400
1848–49.....	15,380,300	1844–45.....	8,270,582	1840–41.....	14,275,200

The market is well supplied with timber at present, and the mills are all busily employed sawing out planks of all descriptions. There are at this time six large steam saw mills in the immediate neighborhood of the city in successful operation. The following are the quotations for timber, *&c.*:—

Steam-sawed refuse, per 1,000 feet	$8 00 a $11 00
Steam-sawed merchantable	14 00 a 18 00
River lumber, refuse	9 00 a 10 00
Merchantable to prime	14 00 a 16 00
Ranging lumber for export	9 00 a .....
Mill ranging	10 00 a 13 00
Timber	6 00 a 11 00
Shingles, cypress	4 00 a 4 50
Sawed cypress shingles	16 00 a .....

BREADSTUFFS EXPORTED FROM UNITED STATES IN 1851-52.

The *Shipping List* furnishes the subjoined statement of the exports of breadstuffs to Great Britain and Ireland, from September 1, 1851, to 31st August, 1852, distinguishing the leading ports from which the exports were made:—

	Flour, bbls.	Meal, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.
New York	917,995	70	1,933,319	857,035
New Orleans	129,276	60	4,311	481,896
Philadelphia	160,471	1,680	507,963	45,828
Baltimore	178,962	....	193,848	125,080
Boston	37,011	....	18,135	21,626
Other ports	20,925	....	54,544	45,384
Total	1,444,640	1,810	2,712,120	1,576,749
Same time last year	1,581,702	5,553	1,523,908	2,368,860
Increase	.....	....	1,188,212	.....
Decrease	137,062	3,743	.....	792,111

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR THROUGHOUT THE WORLD IN 1851.

Cuba and Porto Rico ....tons of 2,000 lbs.	375,000
European beet-root	160,000
British West Indies	153,000
United States, (including maple sugar)	145,000
Brazil	117,000
Java	100,000
Bengal	78,000
French Colonies	60,000
Mauritius	55,000
Manilla, Siam, &c., &c	30,000
Dutch and Danish Colonies	22,500
Total	1,295,500

THE MERCANTILE MARINE OF THE WORLD.

The following authentic and highly interesting tables are from the Belfast (Ireland) *Mercantile Journal*:—

NUMBER OF VESSELS AND TONNAGE BELONGING TO THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES.

Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.	Countries.	Tons.	Vessels.
Great Britain	4,144,115	34,090	Netherlands	396,924	1,793
France	595,344	13,679	Austria	178,000	....
Norway	337,058	3,064	Denmark & Duchies	168,978	4,710
Russia	.....	750	Papal States	133,402	1,520
Greece	150,000	4,000	Canada	68,552	988
Naples	100,000	...	Ceylon	30,828	609
Hamburg	82,053	286	Mauritius	10,020	125
Belgium	22,770	161	Tuscany	27,598	773
Cape of Good Hope	4,080	34	Prussia	133.658	977
United States	3,535,451	....			
Total				10,118,841	67,184

THE SHIPPING AND TONNAGE ENTERED INWARDS AND CLEARED OUTWARDS FROM THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES.

Countries.	Entered. Tons.	Entered. Vessels.	Cleared. Tons.	Cleared. Vessels.
Great Britain	6,113,696	31,249	5,906,978	29,011
France	1,887,291	15,264	1,430,085	13,868
Netherlands	1,099,771	6,959	1,186,864	7,017
Hamburg	730,596	4,094	729,186	4,114
Canada	628,399	1,699	636,407	1,732
Spain	579,475	5,206	470,973	4,622
India	406,479	868	522,056	1,128
Prussia	813,096	4,690	823,456	4,635
United States	4,828,639	21,643	4,361,002	21,805
Russia	1,323,080	6,401	1,177,994	9,197
Norway	772,885	7,969	806,766	8,160
Sardinia	700,000	6,000	700,000	6,000
Austria	547,228	...	562,722	....
Sweden	540,902	6,707	562,294	6,347
Belgium	356,367	2,424	349,638	2,368
Egypt	409,156	2,019	432,696	1,707
China	169,155	531	163,717	528
Other countries	1,927,505	15,915	1,965,867	17,163
Total	23,333,620	139,638	22,738,801	136,402

VALUE OF PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR.

The following comparison of the value of the principal products of the interior, received at the port of New Orleans from 31st August to 1st September, is compiled from a series of tables which the editors of the *New Orleans Price Current* have yearly prepared for their "Annual Statement." It will be found to exhibit some interesting facts in regard to the Commerce of New Orleans with the South and West:

	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
Cotton	$48,592,222	$48,756,764	$41,886,150
Sugar	11,827,350	12,678,180	12,396,150
Tobacco	7,196,185	7,736,600	6,166,400
Flour	3,708,848	4,234,977	3,403,919
Pork	5,250,541	4,134,632	6,632,554
Lard	3,925,845	3,381,404	5,024,340
Lead	878,964	1,041,616	1,257,558
Molasses	4,026,000	2,625,000	2,400,000
Bacon	6,348,622	5,879,470	2,992,787
Corn	1,790,663	1,726,881	1,599,302
Whisky	1,097,640	1,261,928	1,059,777
Wheat	129,836	177,594	115,016
Bagging	780,572	903,800	816,494
Beef	669,657	541,511	685,120
Hemp	257,235	452,088	695,840
Bale rope	677,040	804,180	688,832
Butter	411,628	342,835	239,672
Hay	160,303	144,848	225,032
Hides	247,374	140,338	54,427
Coal	425,000	350,000	270,000
Potatoes	456,190	325,844	332,006
Staves	287,122	315,000	210,000
Tallow	26,140	147,936	97,240
Feathers	72,275	127,535	177,000
Oats	347,454	479,741	325,795
Corn meal	7,542	10,986	14,264
Other articles	9,453,461	8,202,409	7,132,198
Total	$108,051,708	$106,924,083	$96,897,873

Total in 1848–49.....	$81,989,692	Total in 1844–45.....	$57,196,128
" 1847–48.....	79,779,151	" 1843–44.....	60,094,716
" 1846–47.....	90,033,256	" 1842–43.....	53,782,454
" 1845–46.....	77,193,464	" 1841–42.....	45,716,045

From the above table it results that the total value of all the products received at New Orleans from the interior, from September 1st, 1841, to September 1st, 1852, a period of eleven years, amounts to $857,658,164.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF DUTIES IN THE PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK,

UNDER THE ACT FOR RAISING A REVENUE, PASSED IN THE SESSION OF 1851, AND IN FORCE UNTIL 31ST DECEMBER, 1854.

SPECIFIC DUTIES.

	£	s	d
Apples, per bushel	0	0	6
Axes, each, of three pounds weight and upwards	0	1	6
Butter, per hundred weight	0	9	4
Beans and peas, per bushel	0	1	6
Barley, per bushel	0	0	6
Barley meal, per hundred weight	0	2	0
Buckwheat, per bushel	0	0	6
Buckwheat meal, per hundred weight	0	2	6
Candles of all kinds, except sperm and wax, per pound	0	0	1
" sperm and wax, per pound	0	0	4
Cattle of all kinds over one year old, each	2	0	0
Cheese, per hundred weight	0	14	0
Cider, per gallon	0	0	3
Clocks or clock cases of all kinds, each	0	15	0
Coffee, per pound	0	0	1½
Coals, per ton	0	1	0
Chair, per dozen, (in addition to any duty imposed on chairs and parts of chairs by this act,)	0	10	0
Corn meal, per barrel of 196 pounds	0	1	0
Fruits, (dried,) per hundred weight	0	9	4
Horses, mares, and geldings, each	2	0	0
Lard, per pound	0	0	1
Leather—sole, upper leather, harness, and belt leather, per pound	0	0	2½
Sheep skins, tanned and dressed, per dozen	0	3	0
Calf skins, tanned, per dozen	0	6	0
Malt liquors of every description, (not being *aqua vitæ*, otherwise charged with duty,) whether in bottles or otherwise, per gallon	0	0	6
Meats, fresh, per hundred weight	0	9	4
" salted and cured, per hundred weight	0	7	0
With an additional duty of 1s. 2d. per hundred weight on and after the first day of April, 1852, and a further increase of duty of 1s. 2d. per hundred weight on and after the first day of April, 1853.			
Molasses and treacle, per gallon	0	0	1
Oats, per bushel	0	0	3
Oatmeal, per barrel of 196 pounds	0	2	4
Rye, per bushel	0	0	2
Rye flour, per barrel of 196 pounds	0	1	0
Soap, per pound	0	0	0½
Spirits and cordials, viz.:—brandy, per gallon	0	3	4
" " rum, for every gallon thereof of any strength under and not exceeding the strength of proof of 26 by the bubble	0	1	0
" and for every bubble below 26 in number, by the bubble, an additional, per gallon	0	0	1

	£	s	d
Spirits and cordials, viz.:—lemon syrup, per gallon	£0	1	0
" " gin, whisky, and all other spirits, (not hereinbefore enumerated,) per gallon	0	1	6
Sugar, refined, in loaves, per pound	0	0	1½
" refined, crushed, and white bastard, per hundred weight	0	9	4
" of all kinds, except refined, crushed, and white bastard, per hundred weight	0	6	0
Tea, per pound	0	0	2
Tobacco, manufactured, except snuff and cigars, per pound	0	0	1½
Wines, per gallon	0	2	6
" and on every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof, in addition	10	0	0
Wheat, per bushel	0	0	9*
Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 pounds	0	3	0

AD VALOREM.

On the following articles, for every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof, viz.:—

Anchors, ashes, barilla, burr-stones, canvas, cordage, (except Manilla rope,) chain cables, and other chains, for ships' use, cotton wool and cotton warp, copper and patent metal, in sheets, bars and bolts, for ship building, dye-wood, felt, hemp, flax and tow, hides, green and salted, iron, in bolts, bars, plates, sheet, and pig iron, oakum, ores of all kinds, pitch, sails and rigging, for new ships, sheathing paper, silk plush, for hatters' purposes, tallow, tar, tobacco, unmanufactured, wool	1	0	0

On the following articles, for every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof, viz.:—

Castings, viz.:—steam-engines and boilers, and parts thereof, mill-machinery, ships' castings, composition, rudder-braces, &c., machinery of every description, square stoves, known and designated as Canada stoves	7	10	0
Bread and biscuit, bricks, Manilla rope, ready-made clothing	10	0	0

On the following articles, for every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof, viz.:—

Iron castings, viz.:—Cooking, close, box, and round stoves, and parts thereof, apparatus for cooking stoves, Franklin stoves, register grates, fire frames and parts thereof, kitchen ranges, boilers, cast-iron furnaces and parts thereof, cast-iron plows	15	0	0
Boots, shoes, and other leather manufactures, chairs and prepared parts of or for chairs, clock wheels, machinery and materials for clocks, household furniture, (except baggage, apparel, household effects, working tools and implements, used and in use, of persons or families arriving in this Province, if used abroad by them, and not intended for any other person or persons, or for sale,) looking-glasses, oranges and lemons, whale oil, (except the return cargoes of vessels fitted out for fishing voyages from ports in this province,) brushes, hats and hat bodies, pianofortes, snuff and cigars	20	0	0
Carriages, wagons, sleighs, and other vehicles, veneered and other moldings for looking-glasses, picture and other frames, made of wood, wooden wares of all kinds, matches, corn brooms, and all agricultural implements, except plows	30	0	0
And all other goods, wares, and merchandise, not herein otherwise charged with duty, and not hereafter declared to be free from duty, for every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof	7	10	0

ARTICLES EXEMPT FROM DUTY.

Baggage, apparel, household effects, working tools and implements, used and in use of persons or families arriving in this Province, if used abroad by them, and not in-

* Wheat may be considered free of duty, as a resolution was passed by the Legislature on the 28th of April, to refund all duties paid on that article under the Revenue Law, and the Treasurer has been instructed not to exact the duty.

tended for any other person or persons, or for sale, books, printed, carriages of travelers, not intended for sale, coins and bullion, corn broom brush, Indian corn, rice, ground and unground, eggs, manures of all kinds, lines and twines for the fisheries, oil, blubber, fins and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea, the return of vessels fitted out in this Province for fishing voyages, oil—seal, cod, hake, porpoise, palm and rape—plants, shrubs, and trees, printing paper, types, printing-presses, and printers' ink, rags, old rope and junk, rock-salt, sails and rigging saved from vessels wrecked, salt, soap-grease, wood and lumber of all kinds, (except cedar, spruce, pine, and hemlock shingles,) block-tin, zinc, lead, tin plate, bar and sheet steel.

NOTE.—The 1 per cent duty upon all British and foreign manufactured articles, also on pepper and spices, under the Loan Act, is in addition to the rates above specified.

Ships' stores allowed to be taken from bond duty free.

By His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor's proclamation of 3d April, 1850, issued under the authority of "An Act relating to the Trade between the North American Possessions," passed 18th March, 1850, the following articles, being the growth, production, or manufacture of either Canada, Nova Scotia, or Prince Edward Island, may be imported into this Province free of duty, that is to say:—Grain and breadstuffs of all kinds, vegetables, fruits, seeds, hay and straw, animals, salted and fresh meats, butter, cheese, lard, tallow, hides, horns, wool, undressed skins and furs of all kinds, ores of all kinds, iron in pigs and blooms, copper, lead in pigs, grindstones and stones of all kinds, earth, coals, lime, ochres, gypsum, ground and unground, rock-salt, wood, timber and lumber of all kinds, firewood, ashes, fish, fish-oil, viz.: train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, blubber, fins and skins, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea.

☞ The above articles may be imported free via the United States, if accompanied with proof of origin.

This scale of duties applies alike to British and foreign goods.

REVISED TARIFF AT CALCUTTA.

COMPARATIVE VALUATION OF AMERICAN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS UNDER CALCUTTA TARIFF REVISED 1ST JULY, 1852.

IMPORTS.

	Tariff 12th Dec., 1849.	Tariff 1st July, 1852.
Brimstone, roll.....rs.	3 10 0	4 8 0
Brimstone, crude.....	2 0 0	3 0 0
Candles.....	0 9 6	0 8 0
Cochineal.....	6 0 0	4 0 0
Flour.....	10 0 0	12 0 0
Copper, sheet and sheathing.....	36 0 0	31 0 0
Tile.....	34 0 0	30 0 0
Pig and slab.....	29 0 0	28 0 0
Old.....	34 0 0	30 0 0
Lead, pig and sheet.....	7 0 0	6 8 0
Cotton flannel.....	0 3 6	0 3 3
Pitch.....	2 8 0	3 8 0
Raising.....	10 0 0	7 0 0
Red lead.....	10 0 0	9 0 0
Soap, bar.....	0 2 0	0 1 9
Tobacco.....	22 8 0	20 0 0
Verdigris.....	30 0 0	35 0 0

EXPORTS.

Gunny Bags.....rs.	11 0 0	10 4 0
Gunny Cloth.....	4 0 0	3 8 0
Buffalo horns.....	10 0 0	9 0 0
Jute.....	9 0 9	8 8 0
Lac dye.....	20 0 0	25 0 0
Munjeet.....	3 0 0	2 0 0
Castor oil.....	10 0 0	7 0 0
Safflower.....	30 0 0	25 0 0
Turmeric.....	2 8 0	1 8 0

TARIFF OF TAXES ON TRADE, ETC., IN MEMPHIS.

The following ordinances were adopted September 14th, 1852, by the city government of Memphis, (Tennessee.) They, as will be seen, fix the rate of taxation upon real estate and other property, and also licenses for transacting various mercantile and business pursuits:—

Be it ordained by the Mayor and Aldermen of the city of Memphis, That the tax on real and personal property subject to taxation within the corporate limits of said city, shall be one and one-quarter of one per cent on the assessed value thereof for the twenty-sixth corporate year, with the school tax of one-eighth of said tax added thereto, except free persons of color, who shall be exempt from school tax.

Be it further ordained, &c., That all persons pursuing or exercising any of the privileges, occupations, or callings hereinafter mentioned, shall be required to take license previous to commencing such use or exercise, and pay the sum or sums specified herein for all licenses taken or to be taken out after the publication of this ordinance, except such licenses as have been running and are sought to be renewed, and expired previous to the publication of this ordinance then in force at such expiration. In all cases the school-tax of one-eighth will be added, and also the fee of the Recorder, one dollar.

Cotton brokers and agents dealing in cotton, per annum	$75 00
Grocers and commission merchants, per annum	100 00
Dealers in goods, wares, and merchandise, to pay, per annum, as follows:—	
On under $3,900	15 00
Over $3,000 and under 5,000	22 50
5,000 " 7,500	31 25
7,500 " 10,000	50 00
10,000 " 15,000	62 50
15,000 " 20,000	90 00
20,000 " 30,000	125 00
30,000 " 50,000	150 00
All over 50,000	175 00
Brokers and exchange offices to pay, per annum	150 00
Foreign insurance	150 00
Banks and branch banks	250 00
Livery stables	75 00
Retailers of spirits, wines, &c. (and $10 on every $100 over $250.)	25 00
Porter, ale, and beer houses	25 00
Theaters, per month	25 00
Concerts, shows, &c., where money is taken, per 24 hours	10 00
Circuses, per 24 hours	75 00
Double drays and carts	15 00
Single drays and carts	12 00
Peddlers, per month	7 00
Auctioneers, per annum	250 00
Cigar and fruit stores	25 00
Pool tables, (all over one to pay $50)	100 00
Ten pin alleys, " " "	100 00
Bagatelle tables	25 00
Negro traders	250 00

Be it further ordained, &c., That all persons taking out a license under this ordinance to retail spirits, wines, &c., shall, before obtaining the same, make oath to the amount of stock on hand at the time of procuring said license, and give bond and security to render an account on oath of the amount purchased by him or them during term of said license, and no new license shall be granted or renewed until this requisition is complied with, and on every one hundred dollars purchased in addition to their stock on hand at the issuance of their license they shall pay *ten dollars* in addition to the sum paid for their license.

Be it further ordained, &c., That any person or persons who may be deemed liable, or who are required to take a license under the foregoing revenue ordinance, and who fails or refuses to take the same, shall, upon the conviction of the same before the proper authorities, be fined in sum equal to the license so omitted or refused, with all costs accruing hereby. Approved September 14th, 1852.

THE BALTIMORE BOARD OF TRADE.

We have great pleasure in laying before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the third annual report of the President and Directors of the Baltimore Board of Trade, together with the act of incorporation and a list of the officers elected at the annual meeting, which took place on the 4th of October, 1852. The following report of the proceedings of the Board during the past year, was presented and read by its able and efficient President, JOHN C. BRUNE, Esq. We are pleased to notice that the members of this Association have again re-elected Mr. BRUNE President for the ensuing year.

The report itself will illustrate in a clearer manner than anything that we could say, the eminently practical and useful character of the aim and action of the Board:—

OFFICE OF BOARD OF TRADE, *Baltimore, October 2d*, 1852.

THIRD ANNUAL REPORT OF PRESIDENT AND DIRECTORS.

The members of this association will find appended a copy of the *charter* granted by the Legislature of Maryland at its recent session, being in its own language:

"AN ACT OF INCORPORATION, IN ORDER THAT THEREBY ITS EXISTENCE MAY BE RENDERED MORE SECURE, AND THAT IT MAY BE ENABLED TO CARRY OUT WITH GREATER EFFICIENCY THE IMPORTANT AND LAUDABLE OBJECTS FOR WHICH IT WAS FORMED."

This instrument is believed to convey the right to all powers which the Board of Trade is likely to be called upon to exercise.

During the past year a number of subjects of interest have been brought before the Board of Directors, who have bestowed upon them their best attention and judgment; passing silently over some of minor importance, they beg leave briefly to allude to such as they deem worthy of mention.

Among the topics upon which correspondence has been held with Chambers of Commerce in neighboring cities, and joint action taken in bringing the same before Congress, are the following:—

A memorial asking legislation to endeavor to prevent or lessen the fearfully frequent destruction of life, to say nothing of loss of property, by *explosions of boilers, &c.*, on board of steam vessels. It is hoped the act passed will prove efficient.

In reference to a reform in the *light-house* system generally, the Board cheerfully lent their aid, and much is expected from the deliberations of the commission to whom Congress has intrusted this subject, alike important on the score of humanity as well as commercial utility.

The assistance demanded from various quarters in procuring the passage of the act known as the *River and Harbor Bill*, was readily furnished, and the appropriation of fifty thousand dollars for the improvement of the navigation of the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries the Patapsco and Susquehanna rivers, is welcome; though it was generally conceived that our claims on the aggregate fund were larger, considering the amount of revenue collected at this port and the extent of navigation upon which it is to be expended.

A correspondence was held with the Chamber of Commerce of New York, in reference to a large accumulated fund, (said to exceed one million of dollars,) derived from *seamen in the shape of a hospital tax*, the result of which was, the cordial concurrence of your Board in a memorial to Congress, praying that such might be expended for the benefit of invalid seamen in foreign ports, through our consuls or otherwise. It is believed, however, that no action was had on this subject.

A recommendation to preserve the *Wheeling Bridge* was more successful, and that costly structure having been declared to be a national post-route, will doubtless be suffered to remain.

A committee was dispatched to Washington to use proper exertions for the maintenance of a *daily mail* communication between *Baltimore and Norfolk*, and through that place with a large Southern section. It is thought that to the effort thus made, in a great measure is owing our present enjoyment of this benefit.

Our State Legislature during its last session was memorialized by the Board in urgent terms, praying the abolition of the act known as the *stamp tax*, it being regarded by our citizens as partial, vexatious and onerous, and it being believed that the neces-

sity under which it was imposed no longer exists. But the efforts to procure its repeal have thus far been unavailing.

The attention of the Directors having been drawn to the very important subject of the *extension* of the *Baltimore and Ohio Railroad* from Three Forks to Parkersburg, and of the *Baltimore and Susquehanna Railroad* from the northern terminus of the York and Cumberland Railroad to *Sunbury*, resolutions were passed and published approving strongly of these extensions as of great value to the general interests of Baltimore.

By invitation of the Board a committee appointed by the Directors of the Central Ohio Railroad Company visited this city in August last, and in public meeting furnished much valuable information in respect to its purposes, position, and prospects, and exhibited the advantages which would accrue to Baltimore by the extension of said work eastwardly from Zanesville to the Ohio River, at some point to connect with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. The committee likewise invited subscriptions from our citizens in aid of this valuable connection, and books have been opened to enable them to be made.

A weekly journal entitled the *Cotton Plant* having been established at Washington, whose object is to foster and encourage "direct trade, manufactures, agriculture, and the development of Southern resources," was recommended to our merchants liberally to encourage the same by subscription and advertising, in the belief that it would prove a powerful auxiliary in augmenting their business.

In connection with this point it may be well to mention, that it is contemplated in December next to hold in Baltimore a *Commercial Convention*, at which Southern and Western interests it is thought will be fully represented; also that by an interchange of views at such a meeting, a larger share of the Commerce of the South and West than we have hitherto enjoyed may be induced to Baltimore. It is especially deemed auspicious that said Convention should be held at that time, as it will be nearly contemporaneous with the expected opening of our great work of internal improvement, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to the Ohio River at Wheeling.

A communication was received at the meeting held 6th ult., from a committee of the *Maryland State Agricultural Society*, asking the co-operation of the Board of Trade for the "purpose of aiding them in their investigation of the entire *system of inspections* under the existing laws of Maryland, an impression prevailing among the agriculturists of the State that their interests would be materially advanced by a radical change in the present system of inspects." A special committee of five was at once appointed to consider and report upon the subject in all its bearings. It is understood that it is engaged in this investigation, not only with reference to the systems existing at present in this State, but also comparatively with those prevailing in neighboring agricultural and commercial communities. From the joint deliberations of these committees, a valuable and interesting report may be anticipated shortly.

While on the topic of *inspections* it may not be inappropriate to remark, that at the almost unanimous request of buyers and sellers, the City Council at their last session adopted the license system of inspection of *beef and pork*, which will shortly go into operation. In regard to *butter and lard* the "voluntary system" prevails, although an inspector is appointed whose services may be obtained. A strong remonstrance against a bill proposing a tax of forty cents per ton for the inspection of *guano* was addressed to the Senate, stating that it was an unnecessary increase in cost of this extensively used manure which must be borne by the planter or farmer, and that the effect would be to drive a valuable trade from Baltimore to New York or other ports where no such charges are exacted. The bill did not pass.

A modification of the laws regulating the *gauging of domestic distilled liquors* was made by the Legislature on application of the Board, which abandons the old mode of marking by proofs, and substituting therefor, marking the numbers of degrees above or below proof, (as the case may be,) thus conforming with the custom of other large markets.

It is a source of congratulation that at length some steps have been taken towards *deepening our ship channel;* the City Councils at their last session made an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars, to be expended under the supervision of a Board of Commissioners. It is understood that the gentlemen thus appointed have organized and taken the initiatory measures for the disbursement of this fund to best advantage. Included in the River and Harbor Bill recently passed by Congress, (as before stated,) there is a sum of fifty thousand dollars for the improvement of our waters, of which twenty thousand dollars are for the construction of a dredge boat, and twenty thousand dollars for the improvement of the navigation of the Patapsco River and Chesa-

peake Bay, while the remaining ten thousand dollars are intended for the Susquehanna at its mouth. With the object of obtaining the most benefit from the application of these two appropriations, it is hoped and believed that the Board of Commissioners, constituted by the councils, and the officer of engineers, under whose direction the general government will cause its funds to be expended, may act in concert.

It will thus be seen that the United States, as well as the city of Baltimore, have recognized the necessity of removing the obstructions that exist in our river and bay, preventing the ingress and egress of first class ships when deeply laden—such as our large and increasing Commerce demands. The amounts derived from these sources will suffice for a commencement, but to obtain the average depth of water to be desired—say twenty-five feet—they will prove altogether inadequate.

In view of this fact, it is the intention of the Board of Trade to make a strong appeal for aid in carrying out this all important work to the Legislature of Maryland, at its ensuing session, and the directors feel confident that honorable body will liberally respond. It can be proven that every agriculturist in the State is equally interested with every citizen, whether engaged in Commerce or in any of the various mechanical pursuits, in placing this—*their market*—on a footing to compete fairly with Northern ports in conveying their produce to consuming countries at the lowest rates of freight, and thus enabling the buyers here to pay for their tobacco, grain, flour, or other commodities, prices equal to those obtained in New York or Boston. It is unnecessary to advert, in this connection, to the vast *coal* interest of Maryland, of which the development has scarcely commenced. All concerned in it are too fully aware that *cheap freights* are an essential element required to bring into activity this important feature of the future wealth of Maryland.

But it may not be improper to draw attention to the consideration of the direct advantage which must ensue to the State by the increased returns from the value of large investments in the several works of internal improvements, consequent upon opening a sufficiently deep and unimpeded channel to the ocean, for the large quantities of heavy agricultural and mineral productions which ere long must reach Baltimore by the various roads and channels constructed in part by the money and credit of the State—and provided *that they can be brought here, and carried to points of consumption on as favorable terms* as by other rival routes—otherwise a portion of this immense trade will be dormant, and a large share be driven into more fortunate and economical channels.

Reference is asked to the accompanying report of the treasurer of the association for its present financial condition, and all is respectfully submitted to your consideration, by order of the Board of Directors.

JOHN C. BRUNE, President.

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE BOARD OF TRADE OF THE CITY OF BALTIMORE.

Whereas an association of citizens has for several years existed in the city of Baltimore, under the title of the "Board of Trade of the City of Baltimore," having for its object the encouragement and advancement of the interests of Commerce and manufactures in said city;

And whereas said association has applied for an act of incorporation, in order that thereby its existence may be rendered more secure, and that it may be enabled to carry out with greater efficiency the important and laudable objects for which it was formed; therefore—

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland*, That the president of said association, John C. Brune; the vice-presidents, Wm. McKim, Hermann H. Perry, Henry Tiffany, and Nathan Rogers; the treasurer, Edward B. Dallam; the secretary, George U. Porter; and the directors, Thomas C. Jenkins, William P. Lemmon, Joseph C. Wilson, Patrick H. Sullivan, James George, Enoch Pratt, Daniel Warfield, Gustav W. Lurman, William G. Harrison, William R. Travers, Albert Schumacher, Alexander Rieman, David S. Wilson, Josiah Lee, Thomas Wilson, William Bose, Benjamin C. Buck, Chauncey Brooks, Thomas W. Levering, George B. Hoffman, John J. Abrahams, Hugh Jenkins, Enoch A. Courtney, and George K. Walter, and such other persons as now are members of said association, and their successors, be and they are hereby created a corporation by the name of the "Board of Trade of the City of Baltimore," and by that name may sue and be sued, answer and defend in any Court of law or equity, and may ordain and establish such by-laws, rules, and regulations as shall appear necessary and proper for conducting the concerns of said corporation, and shall not be contrary to law; and the same may change, alter, and amend as shall appear proper; and may have, use, and at pleasure change a common seal, and generally

may do any act or thing necessary and proper to carry into effect the provisions of this act, and to promote the designs of the corporation.

SEC. 2. *And be it enacted*, That the said corporation shall have the power of receiving subscriptions, donations, devises, and bequests of money or real or personal property, in trust or otherwise; and of purchasing or otherwise acquiring and holding such property, to be applied by it for the promotion and encouragement of the Commerce, trade, and manufactures of the city of Baltimore; *provided*, however, that the property to be held by said corporation, at any one time, shall not exceed in clear annual value the sum of thirty thousand dollars.

SEC. 3. *And be it enacted*, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to authorize said corporation to issue any note, token, scrip, or device, or other evidence of debt to be used as currency.

SEC. 4. *And be it enacted*, That this act shall have effect from and after its passage, and the General Assembly may at any time alter or repeal this act of incorporation.

After the report was read a resolution was adopted, directing the printing of four hundred copies for the use of the members. The election of officers for the ensuing year was then had, and resulted as follows:—

FOR PRESIDENT—John C. Brune.

FOR VICE-PRESIDENTS—William McKim, Thomas C. Jenkins, Henry Tiffany, Chauncey Brooks.

FOR TREASURER—E. B. Dallam.

FOR SECRETARY—G. U. Porter.

FOR DIRECTORS—Wm. P. Lemmon, P. H. Sullivan, James George, Enoch Pratt, G. W. Lurman, Wm. G. Harrison, Wm. R. Travers, A. Rieman, William Bose, Thomas W. Levering, George B. Hoffman, J. J. Abrahams, E. S. Courtney, William Kennedy, C. D. Culbertson, Robert Leslie, Robert Howard, John H. Duvall, Galloway Cheston, Robert R. Kirkland, B. F. Newcomer, Robert W. Allen, F. B. Graf, S. K. Burkholder.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHT-HOUSES ON THE NORTH COAST OF SPAIN.

The Hydrographic Department, under date July 17th, 1852, has issued the following notice to mariners, descriptive of three new light-houses on the North coast of Spain:—

1ST. LIGHT ON THE POINT OF MACHICHACO, PROVINCE OF BISCAY.

From the 21st of August a new light-house will be lighted every night, established on the Point of Cape Machichaco, on the north coast of Spain, from the setting to the rising of the sun. This light-house is situated 14 miles east of the Point of Fuerte de la Galea, latitude 43° 28′ N., and longitude 3° 22′ 50″ E. of the Observatory of San Fernando, (Cadiz.) The apparatus is of the 1st catadioptric order of Fresnel's system, with *fixed* lights, and flashes at intervals of four minutes. This light, which is of the natural color, is at an elevation of 285 Castilian feet above the level of the Equinoctial high tides, and produces a tangent of 18.8 miles.

2D. LIGHT ON THE POINT OF THE FUERTE DE LA GALEA, PROVINCE OF BISCAY.

This light-house, established on the coast to the east of the Bay (Concha) of Portugalete, is situated 14 miles west of Cape Machichaco, in latitude 43° 22′ 26″ N., and longitude 3° 8′ 14″ E. of the Observatory of San Fernando. Its apparatus is of the 4th catadioptric order; the light fixed and of the natural color, at a hight of 416 Castilian feet above the sea in the Equinoctial high tides, and is distant 5,200 feet of the same measure from the Punta de la Galea. This light in strictness produces a tangent of 22.66 miles; but it can only be distinguished at this, or even at a less distance, under favorable conditions of the atmosphere.

8D. LIGHT CAPE PENAS, PROVINCE OF OVIEDO.

It is situated in latitude 43° 42′ 20″ N., and longitude 22′ 28″ E. of the Observatory of San Fernando. The hight of the luminous focus above the level of the sea is 370 Castilian feet, and its apparatus, which is of the first catadioptric order of Fresnel, produces a light with eclipses which follow each other at intervals of 30 seconds, with a tangent in clear weather of 20 miles. This light will be first illuminated on the 15th of August.

BELL BUOY IN THE BAY OF FUNDY.

ST. JOHN, N. B., September 22, 1852.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

DEAR SIR:—I beg leave to communicate to you, for the information of the readers of your useful Magazine, that a bell buoy is about being moored not under one-and-a-half and not over two miles directly south of Patridge Island, at the entrance of this harbor. The dimensions are as follows, namely,—length over all, thirty five feet; breadth, twelve feet; extreme hight of mast, fifteen feet, on top of which is the bell; the least swell will cause the bell to ring; there are four clappers. The buoy is ballasted with eight tons of pig iron, and was built in England, of boiler-plate, in a substantial and workmanlike manner. Half-way up the iron mast there is a cage for the protection of any person shipwrecked who can reach it.

The prevalence of fog in the Bay of Fundy renders the buoy absolutely necessary. It is the first of the kind ever used this side of the Atlantic. Yours, respectfully,

R. S.

ASCERTAINING THE CURRENTS OF THE OCEAN.

A bottle containing the following note was picked up July 29th, 1852, in Galeon Bay, on the N. E. part of the Island of Martinique, in latitude 14° N., longitude 60° 56′ West.

H. M. S. RAPID, Tuesday, February 24, 1852.

In latitude 30′ S., longitude 22° 34′ 30″ W., experienced a strong current, running N. W., at the rate of 30 miles per day; two days previous, but in the above latitude and longitude, we had no currents, which induces me to send this bottle. Should it be picked up, note the day of month and date, together with your latitude and longitude, and forward it to me. ALFRED MESSUM, Master H. M. S. Rapid.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON THE EAST END OF KANGAROO ISLAND.

We are indebted to G. J. Abbot, Esq., of the State Department, Washington, for the subjoined notice to mariners. It is dated, Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, July 15th, 1852:—

Mariners are hereby informed, that on the 10th of January, 1852, a revolving light was established on Cape Willoughby, the eastern extremity of Kangaroo Island, in 35° 49′ 20″ S. and 138° 12′ 30″ E. of Greenwich.

The light appears at intervals of a minute and a half, and being elevated 241 feet above the level of the sea, may be seen at the distance of twenty-four miles, from the deck of a moderate sized vessel, and on all bearings, from N. E. by E. ¼ E. round to S. by E. ¼ E.

PORT PATRICK HARBOR LIGHT.

Notice is hereby given that, by order of the lords commissioners of her majesty's treasury, the Harbor Light of Port Patrick, in Wigtonshire, will, from and after the 1st of January next, 1853, cease to be exhibited.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

RAILROAD SYSTEM OF THE WEST.

Under this title, a writer in the *Toledo Republican* in an interesting article, considers what outlets the new system of railroads in the Western States will have towards the east, and in which directions their freights will most profitably be carried. The railroads now projected in the Western States amount to nearly ten thousand miles, 2,000 of which are nearly finished, and the remainder will probably be so, before the end of 1853. At about the same time, Baltimore and Philadelphia will each have completed a single line railroad to the Ohio. The New York and Erie Railroad will probably then be double-tracked, as well as the roads between Buffalo and Albany.

The side roads in New York, together with the Ogdensburg, may be considered equivalent to a continuous single-track. This would give the Northern route, five tracks of railroad besides the Erie Canal; leaving to the Southern route, two tracks of railroad and the Pennsylvania Canal.

The following Western roads are considered as depending on the Pennsylvania Central and the Baltimore and Ohio roads for an outlet.

IN WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA.

	Miles.
The Hempfield road, Greenburg to Wheeling	78
Pennsylvania and Ohio road from Pittsburg west	44
Pittsburg and Steubenville road	35
Total in Pennsylvania	157

IN OHIO.

The Ohio and Pennsylvania State line to Crestline	136
Cleveland and Pittsburg	99
Columbus and Wheeling	150
Cincinnati, Circleville, and Zanesville	130
Little Miami, Cincinnati to Springfield	84
Columbus and Xenia	55
Cincinnati and Dayton	60
Cincinnati, Belpre and Wheeling	250
Central Ohio, Columbus to Steubenville	175
Dayton and Western	40
Bellefontaine and Indianapolis	118
Ohio and Indiana, Crestline to State line	113
Greenville and Miami	30
Eaton and Hamilton	27
Cincinnati to St. Louis	22
Springfield and Columbus	35
Total in Ohio	1,524

IN INDIANA.

The Indianapolis and Lawrenceburg	90
Indianapolis and Bellefontaine	83
Indianapolis and Terre Haute	72
Lafayette and Indianapolis	70
Central Indiana, Dayton to Indianapolis	72
Madison and Indianapolis	86
Cincinnati and St. Louis	168
Hamilton and New Castle	40
New Castle, Logansport and Chicago	174
Ohio and Indiana, State Line to Ft. Wayne	18
Shelbyville, Knightstown and Municetown	78
Total in Indiana	641

IN ILLINOIS.

	Miles.
The Sangamon and Morgan	54
Cincinnati and St. Louis	150
Terre Haute and Alton	160
Terre Haute and Springfield	150
Total in Illinois	514

IN MISSOURI.

The Pacific Railroad, St. Louis to Independence	300
Hannibal and St. Joseph	300
Total in Missouri	600

IN KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

About	800

RECAPITULATION.

Western Pennsylvania	157
Ohio	1,524
Indiana	941
Illinois	514
Missouri	600
Kentucky and Tennessee	800
Total	4,536

This is the superstructure of the two single tracks from Philadelphia and Baltimore. Depending on the New York channel there will be—

IN CANADA.

The Great Western Railroad	270

IN MICHIGAN.

The Michigan Central	228
Michigan Southern	133
Michigan Southern Branches	45
Detroit and Pontiac	25
Total	431

IN OHIO.

The Cleveland, Painesville and Ashtabula	75
Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati	135
Toledo, Norwalk and Cleveland	96
Junction Railroad, Cleveland to Maumee	120
Erie and Kalamazoo, Toledo to Adrian	33
Northern Ohio, Toledo to State Line	70
Total	529

IN INDIANA.

The Northern Indiana	165

IN ILLINOIS.

The Galena and Chicago	132
Aurora Branch and Extension	60
Rock Island and Chicago	180
Central Military Track	84
Jonesville and Chicago	78
Lake Shore	40
Total	574

IN WISCONSIN.

	Miles
The Lake Shore	40
Jonesville and Fon du Lack	90
Milwaukee and Mississippi	170
Total	300

RECAPITULATION.

Canada	270
Michigan	431
Ohio	529
Indiana	165
Illinois	574
Wisconsin	300
Total	2,269

This is the extension of the five New York tracks. In addition to these, there are the following North and South roads:—

IN OHIO.

Columbus and Lake Erie, Newark to Mansfield	64
Mansfield to Sandusky	56
Mad River and Lake Erie, Dayton to Sandusky	181
Dayton and Michigan, Dayton to Toledo	150
Portsmouth and Chilicothe	45
Scioto and Hocking Valley, Portsmouth to Newark	110
Total	603

IN INDIANA.

Indianapolis and Peru	78
New Albany and Salem	345
Jeffersonville and Columbus	68
Evansville and Vincennes	50
Vincennes and Terre Haute	56
Fort Wayne and Municetown	65
Goshen and Peru	65
Total	727

IN ILLINOIS.

Illinois Central	640
Springfield and Alton	72
Fox River Railroad	45
Total	757

RECAPITULATION.

Ohio	603
Indiana	727
Illinois	757
Total	2,087

The writer in the *Republican* considers, that the Philadelphia and Baltimore works are incapable of accommodating the enormous trade of the west, and what is even equally fatal, denies, that when the products of the west are there, that they have reached their natural market. It is asserted, that the principal home market of the United States may be found within a circle, of which Albany is the pole; to include Lake Champlain on the north, Boston on the east, New York on the south, and Syracuse on the west. Here are found the consumers, those who consume and fashion the products of the West; those who in return furnish the West in clothing, tools, and manufactured articles. Here are the workshops and manufactories of the Union, and here the raw materials tend.

Examine the great courses of trade, and it will be found they all point to this vortex. The cotton of the South goes there to be manufactured. The products of the West go there to be consumed. The lumber and grain of Canada, and the Commerce of oceans, all face this common centre. If northern Canada and the great northwest were as well settled as our Southern States, and if State governments permitted trade to pursue an untrammeled course, then, we would see great thoroughfares radiating from this circle; a northern one through Montreal and Quebec; a northwestern one through Lake Ontario, and by the north shores of Huron and Superior; the western through Canada, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa; the southwestern, through Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri; and the southern, through Philadelphia, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia.

All this is very forcible, and the further argument, that the natural tendency is to try the home market before attempting the foreign, is undeniable. This accounts for some of those trade currents, that otherwise seem inexplicable. The fact is, that industrial wants and the laws of economical science, govern more potently than any others, the movements of production. The bulkiest articles will climb mountains to reach a market, while a diamond will hardly tumble to the foot of a hill, if there is no one there to purchase it. The capitalists of New York are reminded, not to waste their money on lines, that will not even enrich their rivals, while they strip themselves of the means to open up the communications between the teeming West and the home of the consumers, so much of which lies territorially within their borders, and all the approaches to which must traverse their State. The particular plan recommended as best calculated for the present to accommodate the freights of the West is, the construction of an angling road from the vicinity of Erie, Pennsylvania, towards Zanesville, Ohio, to interest the trade of the Pennsylvania and Ohio Railroad, the Ohio Central, the Columbus and Wheeling, and the Cincinnati and Belpre roads. The importance of the St. Louis and Erie Road is also strongly insisted on.

It is a striking instance of the power of local interest to influence the opinions of men, that those members of the Legislature of Pennsylvania from the northern tier of counties, who did the most to force the lake shore line through the State free of taxation, were the very men who strove the hardest to load down the Pennsylvania Central Railroad with restrictions. They contended that the Central Railroad would injure the State Canal, but that the New York and Erie Railroad would not injure it. Their argument was that we should treat our neighbors better than ourselves. For one, I deny both the premises and the conclusion. It is not a contest between the Pennsylvania Railroad and the Pennsylvania Canal; it is a contest between our old Keystone State, rich in her position and her natural advantages, (which has been called by some one "a blind giant,") and the Empire State of New York, with which she is contending on the one hand, while with the other she struggles with the restless commercial activity of Maryland.

I am a Pennsylvanian by birth and education. My home is in Philadelphia and my interests are concentrated there. For twenty-five years I have labored as a civil engineer to aid in improving our internal communications. Nothing short of thorough work will now answer the purpose, and the very competition that renders it necessary will compel its accomplishment. I saw the first railroad made in the State, and I hope before long to see such a line completed, from one end of her territory to the other, as may challenge competition with any other in the Union.

I know what an interest this question excites in Ohio; for Ohio is the battle-ground on which the Eastern cities contend for the trade of the West. I know that I am addressing an intelligent audience, and that there is no use in endeavoring to evade the question or to conceal the facts. We know that you are wide awake, and we are striving to arouse our citizens and to make them equally vigilant. We know that the railroads running from the Lake shore, already reach to Cincinnati in southwestern Ohio, and to Zanesville and Wellsville in the southeastern part of the State. Go where we will, on your broad plains, we must meet Northern competition; and my opinion is, that it can best be done by perfecting the line from Pittsburg to Philadelphia.

We regard the Ohio and Pennsylvania railroad as a *golden link* in the chain of internal improvements, which binds the agricultural industry of the West, with an Eastern home market of consumption—a union of interests, both agricultural and commercial: alike sources of national prosperity.

STEAMBOAT NAVIGATION OF CINCINNATI.

In the "*Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review*" for October, 1849, (vol. xxi., page 468,) we published a tabular statement of the arrival and departure of steamboats for the port of Cincinnati, for the years 1847 and 1848, and in November, 1850, (vol. xxiii., page 469,) a similar statement for the years 1849 and 1850, and in the number for October, 1851, a statement of the same for the year ending September 1st, 1851. We now subjoin a similar statement for the year ending September 1st, 1852, as follows:—

A COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES AT THIS PORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

ARRIVALS FROM

Months.	New Orleans.	Pittsburg.	St. Louis.	Other ports.	Total.
September	3	29	10	208	250
October	1	32	14	225	272
November	2	56	30	286	374
December	10	33	19	148	220
January	23	24	6	106	159
February	33	56	11	243	343
March	42	77	24	276	419
April	38	63	29	219	349
May	29	67	28	237	361
June	28	50	18	240	331
July	12	39	17	246	314
August	3	48	12	220	283
Total	219	574	218	2,654	3,675

DEPARTURES FOR

Months.	New Orleans.	Pittsburg.	St. Louis.	Other ports.	Total.
September	7	14	17	202	240
October	3	24	18	203	248
November	26	37	27	246	336
December	16	32	8	145	201
January	23	19	8	191	236
February	39	52	19	224	334
March	37	68	36	260	401
April	28	66	33	216	343
May	25	75	24	240	364
June	14	50	19	245	328
July	14	29	16	239	298
August	4	32	21	225	282
Total	326	498	241	2,536	3,611

LOUISVILLE AND FRANKFORT RAILROAD.

This road extends from Louisville to Frankfort, (Kentucky,) a distance of 65 miles, where it connects with the Lexington and Frankfort Railroad, which is 29 miles in length, both roads making a distance of 94 miles. The fare between Louisville and Frankfort is $2, a fraction more than three cents per mile.

The fourth annual report of the president and directors of the Louisville and Frankfort Railroad, submitted to the stockholders at their annual meeting, July 5th, 1852, presents the condition of the work. The capital stock is made up of a subscription of the city of Louisville of $510,875, paid by taxation on the property of the citizens during the years 1848, 1849, and 1850; $300,000 paid in city bonds on time, and $42,812 50 individual subscriptions, to this to be added $51,445 42 interest on the payments for stock, making in all $905,130 92.

The report of the engineer and superintendent of the road, Charles N. Warren, Esq., exhibits the construction and working of the road for the year ending June 30th. The total receipts since the first locomotive was put on the track have been $222,786 18, and the total expenses $130,338 64, including the hauling of iron and other material. Within the year, the road has been connected with the Lexington Road, side tracks laid at Frankfort, Pleasureville, and Smithfield, water stations put up along the line, the depot at Louisville built, and engine-houses put up at that place and Frankfort. The passenger business for the present June has exceeded that of the corresponding month in 1851, by 16 per cent. At this rate of increase the receipts for the coming year will be $195,000. There are 10 eight-wheeled and one six-wheeled locomotives on the road, two freight engines of ten wheels are to be delivered during the month of September. The total mileage of the engines was 135,000 miles, and they averaged 18,000 miles each.

The receipts per mile run was	$1 24 4
Expenses	0 73 4
" deducting items above mentioned	0 61 1

The total cost of the road, including interest in cash and stock up to the 1st of July, is $1,358,764 43.

The receipts for the year were for—

Passengers.	Freight.	Mails.	Total.
$99,971 42	$63,402 81	$5,546 02	$167,920 25

The expenses		$99,134 19
Less one half for repairs	$12,600	
Wood on hand	4,000	
		12,600 00
Leaving the expenses at		$84,534 19
Balance in favor of receipts		85,386 06

TOLLS AND TONNAGE OF CANADIAN CANALS.

The subjoined statement of tolls, trade, and tonnage of the several canals, during the year 1851, is derived from a Parliamentary document:—

VESSELS PASSED THE SEVERAL CANALS IN THE YEAR 1851.

	BRITISH.			FOREIGN.		
	No.	Tonnage.	Tolls.	No.	Tonnage.	Tolls.
Welland Canal	3,357	363,221	£1,628	2,336	409,402	£2,436
St. Lawrence Canal	6,656	505,197	1,447	278	21,013	64
Chambly Canal	1,517	81,594	193	210	9,147	27
Burlington B. Canal	1,998	380,649	230	535	101,261	61
St. Anne's Lock	1,926	99,561	309	61	2,846	8
Total	15,454	1,430,172	£3,809	3,420	553,669	£2,598

Total British and foreign vessels	18,874
Tons	1,973,841
Toll	£6,407

The total movement on the canals for 1851 and three years previous, is as follows:

WELLAND CANAL.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Tons	307,611	351,596	399,600	691,627
Passengers	2,487	1,640	1,930	4,758
Tonnage of vessels	372,854	468,410	588,100	772,622

ST. LAWRENCE CANAL.

Tons	164,627	213,153	288,103	450,400
Passengers	2,071	26,997	35,932	33,407
Tonnage of vessels	5,648	5,448	6,169	6,934

CHAMBLY CANAL.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Tons	17,835	77,216	109,040	110,720
Passengers	470	8,480	278	1,860
Tonnage of vessels	659	1,264	2,878	1,727

The receipts of 1851 were	£76,216
Expenses	12,286
Of the gross tolls, the Welland produced	48,241
The St. Lawrence	21,276

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

PAST, PRESENT, AND PROSPECTIVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have published in former volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine* similar statements of the progress of population in the United States. The following was recently communicated to the *National Intelligencer* by WILLIAM DARBY, a venerable statistician. "The two tabular views which follow," says Mr. Darby, "will show that data are not wanting which enable us to demonstrate the certainty of cause and effect. With these remarks the two inclosed tables are submitted to your disposal. I find, let me observe, that one thing has prevailed through every decennial period of our history."

TABLE I.—POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, AS RECORDED IN THE TABULAR VIEW OF THE SEVEN ENUMERATIONS MADE BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS, 1790 TO 1850, INCLUSIVE.

1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
3,929,872	5,305,952	7,239,841	9,638,131	12,866,920	17,063,353	23,144,126

TABLE II.—PROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1860 TO 1950, INCLUSIVE, ON THE RATIO OF ONE-AND-A-THIRD DECENNIALLY, AS FOUND BY TABLE I, VERY NEARLY.

1860	30,958,000	1910	120,034,000
1870	41,145,000	1920	160,045,000
1880	54,559,000	1930	213,360,000
1890	73,144,000	1940	284,480,000
1900	97,525,000	1950	379,307,000

POPULATION AND COMMERCE OF AUSTRALIA.

British Parliamentary papers, recently published, furnish statements of the population, trade, &c., of the Australian Colonies, to the beginning of 1851. At that date the respective position of each Province was as follows:—

	Population.	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage. Inwards.	Tonnage. Outwards.
New South Wales	192,000	£2,078,388	£2,899,580	284,215	263,849
Victoria	77,360				
South Australia	76,430	845,572	570,816	86,583	87,872
West Australia	5,886	52,351	22,134	15,988	14,748
Van Dieman's Land	.....	1,232,272	1,172,530	203,081	203,978

The population of Van Dieman's Land is not given for a later period than 1847, when it was 70,164, including 24,188 convicts.

The total value of wool exported in 1850 from New South Wales and Victoria was	£1,614,241
From Western Australia	15,482
From South Australia	131,730
From Van Dieman's Land	451,208
From South Australia the export of minerals was	862,568

MORTALITY OF COMMERCIAL CITIES.

RATIO OF DEATHS TO POPULATION IN NEW YORK, BALTIMORE, BOSTON, AND CHARLESTON.

The following comparative table of mortality of the cities of New York, Baltimore, Boston, and Charleston, for the year 1851, has been prepared by Dr. J. GILMAN, of the Baltimore Board of Health:—

	New York.	Baltimore.	Boston.	Charleston.
Consumption	2,374	679	669	120
Inflammation of lungs	1,263	55	262	35
Scarlet fever	627	234	50	21
Typhus fever	977	10	88	36
Small pox	562	100	63	4
Measles	320	21	145	..
Dropsy	1,213	260	210	56
Convulsions	1,792	99	141	26
Apoplexy	687	23	32	33
Old age	179	156	79	31
All other causes	10,649	2,450	2,044	470
Total	20,734	4,167	3,855	922

The following table shows the sex, condition, and age of the above:—

	New York.	Baltimore.	Boston.	Charleston.
Males	11,371	2,179	1,966	484
Females	9,367	1,988	1,889	438
Free colored	443	670	*	...
Slave colored	....	229	....	533
Still born	1,286	370	251	*
Under one year	5,604	1,039	335	149
One to ten	6,252	1,196	1,004	166
Ten to twenty	363	206	210	53
Twenty to thirty	2,336	429	518	103
Thirty to forty	2,094	291	386	113
Over fifty	2,259	593	611	242

By the above table it appears that the ratio of deaths to the population is as follows:—

	Population.	Ratio of mortality.
New York	515,507	1 in 2,485
Baltimore	169,054	1 in 4,057
Boston	136,871	1 in 3,550
Charleston	42,985	1 in 4,662

OF THE POPULATION OF THE GLOBE.

The population of the globe is supposed to be under a thousand millions, or, according to M. Hassel, 937,856,000. If, then, says a French writer, all mankind were collected in one place, every four individuals occupying a square metre, the whole might be contained in a field ten miles square. Thus, generally speaking, the population of a country might be packed, without much squeezing, in its capital. But the mean idea this gives us of the number of the human race, is counterbalanced by its capability of extension. The new world is said to contain of productive land 4,000,000 square miles of middling quality, each capable of supporting two hundred inhabitants; and 6,000,000 of a better quality, capable of supporting five hundred persons. According to this calculation, the population of the new world, as peace and civilization advance, may attain to the extent of 4,000,000,000. If we suppose the surface of the old world to be double that of America, (and notwithstanding the comparative poverty of the land, this calculation may be accepted, if we say nothing of Australia and the various archipelagoes,) it would support 8,000,000,000; and thus the aggregate population of the entire globe might amount to 12,000,000,000, or twelve times the present number.

* Not reported.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

MANUFACTURING TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER I.

CLINTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

LOCATION AND POPULATION OF CLINTON—GINGHAM MANUFACTORY—MANUFACTURE OF BRUSSELS CARPETS—E. B. BIGELOW, THE INVENTOR—NOTICES OF HIS STEAM-LOOM AND CARPETING IN ENGLAND—LANCASTER QUILT COMPANY—CARPET BAGS—WOOLEN, FORK, AND COMB FACTORIES—IRON FOUNDRY—BOARDING-HOUSES OF THE OPERATIVES —WAGES—CHURCHES, ETC.

We recently passed a day at this village in visiting the several manufacturing establishments, and with the aid of EDWIN BYNNER, Esq., the editor of the Clinton *Saturday Courant*, Mr. A. S. Carleton, and the brothers Bigelow, we are able to lay before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* a comprehensive and tolerably accurate sketch of this interesting manufacturing village.

Clinton, geographically speaking, is a small town in the County of Worcester, Mass., contains less than 5,000 acres, including highways and all surfaces covered with water, and was set off from Lancaster in 1849. It is bounded on the north and west by Lancaster and Sterling; south by Boylston; east by Bolton and Berlin; all of which towns were originally integral portions of old Lancaster, or, as it was termed, the Nashaway Plantation, which dates back as far as 1643, being the oldest and one of the most beautiful towns in the county, and was ceded to the whites by Sholan, Sachem of the Nashaway tribe of Indians. It is conveniently situated about thirty-five miles west from Boston, and thirteen miles north from Worcester, having direct railroad communication with both cities, and contains about 2,800 inhabitants.

The town is chiefly celebrated for its manufactures—which are extensive and unique in their character—for the rapidity of its growth, the excellence and extent of its system of common schools, and the public spirit of its inhabitants. Clinton is "virtually the creation of a single mind," that of ERASTUS B. BIGELOW, Esq., the celebrated inventor and adapter of machinery for numerous woven fabrics; whose genius may be said to have been cradled in its lap. We shall have occasion to speak of the character and genius of Mr. Bigelow in a future number of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

The most important manufactures produced in Clinton are the fabrics known throughout the States, and elsewhere, as Lancaster ginghams, Brussels carpets, coach lace, figured counterpanes, tweeds, yarns, fancy cassimeres, carpet bags, combs, and machinery. First in importance, and deservedly rated as the most perfect establishment in the United States, is the "Gingham," or "Lancaster Mills." This immense establishment, entirely built of brick, was erected in 1843, on the banks of the Nashua, in the easterly portion of the town, and contains 21,000 spindles, and 600 looms, with necessary machinery for carding, spinning, &c. The driving power consists of three breast wheels, 26 feet in diameter, with 14 feet buckets—on one line of shafting, with which is connected a steam-engine of some 200 horse-power, to insure a sufficient power in dry seasons, giving an entire propelling force of 600 horse-power; the whole of which, however, is seldom or ever required. The large dye-house connected with this establishment, is supposed to be the most perfect of the kind in the world. One great and desirable result from the erection of this mill is the reduction effected in the price of its fabric; as, while ginghams of the quality here made, were formerly as high as from 16 to 18 cents per yard; the average price of those of this company is about 10½, wholesale.

The capital invested amounts to $900,000. The number of hands employed averages about 800; of which two-thirds are females, whose wages, exclusive of board, range from $2 to $4 per week. The entire range of buildings is heated by steam, in the production of which 1,500 tons of anthracite coal are annually consumed.

The whole surface covered with the buildings of this establishment exceeds 4 acres; one room alone, in which the weaving is done, covering nearly two, or to be more exact, 1¾ acres. About 70 large tenements of a handsome and uniform appearance, are occupied by the operatives. The daily product of the mill exceeds 12,000 yards, or between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000 annually. Its entire arrangement is of the most perfect description, and in its vast completeness, it stands as a splendid monument to the genius and masterly power of the mind of its projector. The Clinton Company, with a capital of $400,000, ranks second among the incorporated establishments. Like all the larger manufactories of the town, this also was designed and completed by the Messrs. Bigelow. Here is woven coach lace of the most beautiful patterns; tweeds, cassimeres, and pantaloon stuffs of an excellent fabric, and constantly in demand. About 200 hands are usually employed, turning out 1,200,000 yards of coach lace and 800,000 yards of the other description of goods, annually. This company has also a machine shop, in which the greater portion of the machinery working in Clinton has been manufactured. This mill was commenced in the spring of 1838.

The "Bigelow Carpet Company" was commenced in the fall of 1849. Though the youngest of the establishments which give to Clinton her growing importance, it is perhaps the most interesting, and destined to be one of the largest of the number. Though now but in its infancy, 500 yards of Brussels carpet, of a quality heretofore unequalled, of the most varied and beautiful patterns and colors, are daily produced from 28 looms; consuming 700 pounds of worsted, and about 400 pounds of linen yarn in the same length of time. This building is also of brick, two stories and attic, 200 feet long by 42 wide. The machinery is propelled by a steam-engine of thirty horse-power, and the consumption of coal is equal to 400 tons, annually. One hundred hands are employed—about half of which number are females. The dying, weaving, and finishing are the only branches now performed in the present building; the spinning, &c., being done elsewhere.

During the time it has been in operation, the works have been constantly employed, so great has been the demand for the new fabric, which heretofore has been woven solely by hand, by which means five yards was the maximum of the product of a day's labor. By the beautiful loom of Mr. Bigelow, from 20 to 25 yards are easily obtained by the attendance of one girl. The beautiful process by which the wires are taken from, and uniformly replaced in the warp, in the manufacture of this fabric, is the theme of universal admiration; the machine working as though gifted with almost human intelligence. Like all the products of Mr. Bigelow's wonderful inventive power, the machinery of this establishment is of the most perfect description; and to those who delight in the marvelous triumphs of science, no greater treat can be afforded than to witness its operation.*

It is eminently worthy of note in this place, that five of the leading carpet manufacturers in England have taken licenses to run looms for the manufacture of carpets under the patents of E. B. Bigelow, Esq., and are now erecting extensive works.

The steam loom invented by Mr. Bigelow, for the manufacture of Brussels carpeting, is thus noticed in the *Worcester* (England) *Herald*, (March, 1852:—)

"Several manufacturers and foremen from carpet establishments in Kidderminister

* The Carpet Factory is not an incorporated company, but is owned by E. B. & F. Bigelow, and H. P. Fairbanks.

have visited the premises of Messrs. Crossley, at Halifax, and inspected Bigelow's steam loom. The universal report is that the loom complies with the two main conditions of success—cheapness in the working and excellence in the work. It makes two yards of good Brussels in the hour, and thus equals the united exertions of four men. What effect this loom will have upon the town and trade of Kidderminster has become an important problem The loom makes two yards per hour. Suppose the attendant receives 3d. per hour, and the cost of engine power, and extra power, and interest of extra capital above the cost of four hand looms (which would make the same quantity of carpet) be 3d. more, the carpets which would cost 10½d. per yard for weaving in the hand loom will cost 3d. only. Add to this another 1d. per yard for better quality of material, which the weavers insist is necessary in the steam loom, the utmost expense to be set against the hand loom 10½d. is 4d. If the weavers on the average earn 20s. per week at present when receiving 10½d., it is plain they cannot earn more than 7s. 6d. at 4d.; therefore it is impossible for them to compete with the steam loom. But there are circumstances which will save them from utter and immediate ruin as a class. First, the patentee will require a royalty of 4d. per yard. If they manufacture Brussels themselves they will be able of course to undersell those who have to pay a royalty, but it would not be their policy to do so; therefore the cost of weaving steam Brussels may be fairly reckoned at 8d. per yard for the unexpired portion of the fourteen years' patent. Secondly, the steam loom under its present arrangement of parts requires a higher room than those in the present factories, and there must be a great outlay in this respect before power looms can be introduced at all. Then the manufacturers have no market in which to sell their hand looms, and, generally speaking, no loose capital, and therefore they cannot buy the expensive steam looms, engine, and necessary apparatus. Many of them will be consequently driven to compete with the power looms, by means of reduced profits *and reduced expenditure in the shape of wages;* and there can be no doubt that until the monopoly created by the patent expires there will be an existence for the hand looms. After that time it must be given up. Of course the progress of invention may introduce a loom which will be as efficient as Bigelow's, much more compact, and much less costly. In that case an earlier destruction of the hand loom will occur. But there is another contingency to be thought of. Should the continent be disturbed by war, and a general and long-continued stagnation of trade arrive, the hand-loom weavers will be driven by hunger and despair to accept such terms as will only find them the barest existence, and then their work may drive the steam Brussels, burdened with the royalty, out of the market. We hope, however, that no such dismal alternatives may occur, but that the trade may revive to such an extent as to create a demand that neither steam nor hand loom may be able to supply. The poor weavers are already in a pitiable case, and the heart must be hard indeed that does not feel sorrow at their present sufferings and melancholy prospects."

The London *Morning Chronicle* of October 15th, 1851, in noticing "carpets, floor-cloth, &c.," (class xix.,) says:—

"At the eleventh hour, power-loom manufactured Brussels was deposited in the American division—the merit of the invention and application of this important discovery being due to Mr. Bigelow, of the United States. Evidence of the successful application of a much-wished-for invention is all that could be desired."

From the same journal of later date, we extract the following notice of the carpet weaving of Mr. E. B. Bigelow:—

"The American department has again received an important accession of strength in the shape of some specimens of Brussels carpet, woven upon power-looms. Although various attempts have been made to adapt the power-loom to carpet weaving in this country, there is not, we believe, at this moment, any machinery perfected for that object. Our American brethren have, therefore, gained another step ahead of us, and have won another laurel on this well-contested field of the industrial arts. The looms upon which these carpets were woven have been for some time in use; and upwards of 800—the majority of which are at work in the manufactory of Mr. Bigelow, the inventor—are employed in the States. Each loom requires only the attendance of one girl, while, in the ordinary mode of carpet-weaving by hand, a weaver is required, and a boy or girl to 'draw.' In addition to this saving of labor, the power-loom is stated to be capable of producing four times the quantity in the same space of time

as could be woven upon the hand-loom. As many colors can be used in weaving as in the ordinary Brussels carpet; and the specimens shown are, we are informed, without exception, the most even and regular in the threads of any exhibited. The specimens only arrived last Saturday."

The Lancaster Quilt Company, in Clinton, was commenced under the management of the Brothers Bigelow in the spring of 1837. It is operated by water-power mainly; employs a capital of about $200,000,—100 hands, male and female, and produces annually about 70,000 counterpanes, from 10 to 13 quarters in width, from 36 looms. Prior to the establishment of this mill, the quality of quilts produced by them—commonly known as "Marseilles" were worth at wholesale from $6 to $9 each; they are now retailed at about one-third of those prices. Large quantities of anthracite coal are also used by this establishment.

A. S. Carleton's Carpet-Bag Factory, though in operation but little more than one year, is becoming an important item of the manufacturing interest of Clinton. The bags made by them are destined to supersede the coarser and clumsy-looking article heretofore sold as carpet-bags. They use only the beautiful fabric of the "Bigelow Company," to the amount of about $30,000 annually; which is woven in patterns expressly adapted to that purpose. The sewing is done by one of Lerow and Blodgett's machines.

Fuller's Mill, for the manufacture of Woolen Yarns and Fancy Cassimeres, is also located in Clinton, and is driven by water-power. About 30 hands are here employed —much of the time night and day—consuming about 600 pounds of wool daily, and turning out between 60,000 and 70,000 yards of cloth annually. This mill has been in operation some 10 years.

Gaylord and Company's Fork Factory, in the north part of the town, is an establishment of some note, chiefly for the excellence of the article manufactured. From 6 to 10 hands are constantly employed, making hay and manure forks, of which every variety is produced in a manner which has procured for them much celebrity. Water is the driving power, and upwards of 1,000 dozen forks are annually sold by this firm.

A large amount of freight is furnished to the Worcester and Nashua Railroad, and those which connect with it, including some 5,000 tons of coal, which constitutes but a small portion of the aggregate amount.

There are several manufactories of Combs in the town, the most important is that of Mr. Sidney Harris, on Harris Hill. Mr. Harris is largely engaged in the manufacture of dressing, redding, and pocket combs, employing in the various branches of the business about 30 hands, male and female, and has built up around him, in the portion of the town in which he resides, quite a thriving little village, remarkable for its neatness, and the appearance of prosperity so generally pervading it. Some $20,000 to $25,000 worth of combs are sent to market annually from his workshops. Mr. Harris owns largely of real estate in other portions of the town, in addition to a tract of some 300 acres surrounding his homestead, and furnishes employment to many persons other than above enumerated, in agricultural and other industrial pursuits. The manufactory of Mr. H. McCullum, in the same branch of industry, is also located in Clinton, using water-power, and doing a large amount of business annually.

Beside these, Clinton has an Iron Foundry, in which a large amount of business is transacted by Mr. G. M. Palmer.

We were struck with the air of neatness and comfort evinced in the dwellings occupied by the operatives. The buildings are owned by the several manufacturing companies, or the proprietors, and rented as boarding-houses, at a low rate. The price of board is $1 34 per week, and the girls earn from $2 to $3, after deducting their board.

Clinton has six religious societies. The Congregationalists, Baptists, and Catholics, have each a neat and appropriate edifice for public worship, with settled ministers, as also the Society of Second Adventists, who hold services in a hall, erected mainly for their use. The Unitarians are erecting a suitable building, and the Methodists have just completed a substantial brick edifice.

Some idea of the stirring and active business habits of the population may be formed from the fact that between 1,400 and 1,500 letters pass through the post-office weekly, affording a revenue to the department of between $2,700 and $2,800 annually. This is exclusive of newspapers, pamphlets, &c., of which an immense number is received.

One of the handsomest, most commodious, and best conducted hotels in the county is to be found here, beautifully situated in the central village, which is enjoying an enviable reputation among the traveling community.

A very handsome cemetery has recently been laid out, which is rapidly improving in appearance; and on many cultivated plots, beautiful monuments have already been erected. For its general beauty and judicious arrangement of its streets, &c., the town is chiefly indebted to Mr. H. N. Bigelow, for years sole agent of the various corporations, who, in all public matters, has ever taken an active part, whenever his services have been required for the public benefit, and contributed largely, both in time and money, to the advancement of any feasible scheme for the promotion of the public weal.

THE MANUFACTURE OF THERMOMETERS.

In the month of July, 1852, we passed a few days at New Lebanon Springs, and visited, while there, the Thermometer Manufactory of the KENDALL BROTHERS. The thermometer made by these gentlemen has acquired a well-earned celebrity for its superiority over all others now in use. Indeed, it has been pronounced by Professor SILLIMAN and other distinguished savans, the most accurately graduated instrument produced at home or abroad.

The history of the founder of this establishment, and the discovery of a system of graduating the thermometer, as simple in its details as it is perfect and complete in its results, will not, we presume, be uninteresting to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*. After returning to our editorial labors, (or rather after our return to the city, for our labors, since the establishment of our Journal in 1839, have been unceasing,) we received a letter from Mr. C. S. KENDALL, containing an interesting sketch of the "trials and triumphs" of his father, the elder Kendall. The letter was not designed for publication, but, as will be seen, was written at our request, with a view merely of furnishing us with the data for a few editorial paragraphs on the subject:—

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

DEAR SIR:—In compliance with your request, I will state some facts in reference to the commencement of the thermometer business by my father.

My father, Thomas Kendall, Jr., was the son of the Rev. Thomas Kendall, a chaplain in the Revolutionary War, and afterwards missionary among the Indians. Father attended school only about four months in his life. His only apprenticeship was at making wrought nails.

By reading the *Edinburg Encyclopedia* he acquired a knowledge of the theory of mechanics. He constructed two cotton-mills while a young man, and became interested in one of them, investing about a thousand dollars. The depreciation that ensued immediately after the war of 1812 in cotton fabrics, caused a failure of their cotton enterprise.

Father was thrown out of business, and with nothing to do in those times of general depression, his curiosity was excited to try to make a thermometer—an article seldom seen at that time. He called at a thermometer manufacturer in Boston, and told them that he thought he could make one, and asked the favor of a small piece of tube. They repulsed him, told him he could not make a thermometer, and refused the tube. His pride was aroused, and he went to the glass-works and begged a few pieces of refuse tube. The thermometer was made—shown, I think, to those who denied his capacity to make one, and sold for eight dollars.

Thus encouraged to persevere, he found sale for quite a number of thermometers, and was enabled to support his family by the proceeds of this and his watch and clock repairing business.

You must know that he made thermometers very slowly then, consuming more time in making one than we do in making four dozen now.

Meanwhile, his creditors of the cotton-mill saw fit to imprison him for debt. Governor Lincoln gave him the liberty of the yard, however, and father sent for his tools. Our J. K. remembers carrying them to him one very dark night, and going repeatedly to and from the jail, carrying things to father, and taking the proceeds of his labors to his family, by which they were supported during his confinement. He told his creditors that if they would release him he would pay their debt as fast as he could earn the means.

He was released, and soon after took his watch and clock tools, and, a-foot, set out to see the "West," as this region was then called. (Our family are from Millbury, Worcester County, Massachusetts.) The trip resulted in a family move to New Lebanon. Father was very poor. Soon after coming here, he took some thermometers to Albany, and when he crossed the ferry to enter the city, four cents was all the money he had in the world. Spencer, Stafford & Co. bought his thermometers, and engaged to take all that he could make, and from that time his prospects brightened. About this time he perfected the process of graduating the thermometer scale, sent a description of the same to Professor Silliman, and received from him a high recommendation. Thenceforward, father's reputation as a thermometer maker and theoretical mechanic was established.

This process we have aimed to keep secret in the family.

Father paid his mill debts, supported a large family, and gave liberally to all benevolent movements.

He was induced by the citizens of the town to establish a boarding-school. He did not, however, relinquish the thermometer business. When the school had been in successful operation for some little time, father was taken sick at Albany, on his return from New York, and died, in 1831, aged 45 years.

The richest legacy that he left us, after all, was his memory and character. I remember hearing an old gentleman say, as father's remains were exposed in the church, after the funeral:—"I had rather be Thomas Kendall in that coffin than President of the United States." Perhaps the purest joy that I have ever known has been in reference to my father's memory, although I was only five years old when he died, and I am certain that it has shed a pure and holy influence around my pathway hitherto. The thermometer business continued in the family—but after a little while was allowed to run down, and the work was carelessly and incorrectly done, so that for a while our thermometers were scarcely in the market. For the last six years we have been bringing the business up again, and have now a decided predominence in the market. My brother John, who was the only one of the boys that learned the trade directly of father, remained in the business only a short time after father's death, was in Illinois for about ten years, returned about five years ago, and is now in business with me. He has made several important improvements for facilitating work, and that, together with the improved shape in which we now obtain materials, enables us to make thermometers at a rate vastly ahead of former times. We make from 20,000 to 25,000 thermometers during the present year, and our business is constantly increasing. There are several manufactories in the country.

* * * * * * *

Very truly yours, C. S. KENDALL, OF

NEW LEBANON, New York, August, 12th, 1852. KENDALL BROTHERS.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

NUMBER III.

CURIOSITIES OF GLASS MAKING.

We gather from the ancient writers on glass making, that the workers in the article had, at a very early period, arrived at so great a degree of proficiency and skill as to more than rival, even before the period of the Christian era, anything within the range of more modern art. The numerous specimens of their workmanship still preserved in the public institutions of Europe, and in the cabinets of the curious, prove that the art of combining, coloring, gilding, and engraving glass was perfected by the ancients. Indeed, in fancy coloring, mosaic and mock gems or precious stones, the art of the ancients has never been excelled. Among the numerous specimens, it is remarkable that all vessels are round: none of ancient date are yet found of any other form. And no specimen of crystal glass of ancient date has yet been found.

Among the numerous antiques yet preserved, the "Portland Vase" must hold the first place. Pellat, in his work on the incrustation of glass, states: "The most celebrated antique glass vase is that which was during more than two centuries the principal ornament of the Barberini Palace, and which is now known as the "Portland Vase." It was found about the middle of the sixteenth century, inclosed in a marble sarcophagus within a sepulchral chamber, under the Monte del Garno, two-and-a-half miles from Rome, in the road to Frascati. It is ornamented with white opaque figures in bas relief upon a dark blue transparent ground. The subject has not heretofore received a satisfactory elucidation, but the design and more especially the execution are admirable. The whole of the blue ground or at least the part below the handles, must have originally been covered with white enamel, out of which the figures have been sculptured in the style of a cameo with most astonishing skill and labor." The estimation in which the ancient specimens of glass were held, is demonstrated by the fact that the Duchess of Portland became the purchaser of the celebrated vase which bears her name, at a price exceeding nine thousand dollars, and bore away the prize from numerous competitors. The late Mr. Wedgewood was permitted to take a mould from the vase, at a cost of twenty-five hundred dollars, and he disposed of many copies, in his rich china, at a price of $250 each.

The next specimen of importance is the vase exhumed at Pompeii in 1839, which is now at the museum at Naples. It is about twelve inches high, eight inches in width, and of the same style of manufacture with the "Portland Vase." It is covered with figures in bas relief raised out of a delicate white opaque glass, overlaying a transparent dark blue ground, the figures being executed in the style of cameo engraving. To effect this, the manufacturer must have possessed the art of coating a body of transparent blue glass with an equal thickness of enamel or opal colored glass. The difficulty of tempering the two bodies of glass with different specific gravities, in order that they may stand the work of the sculptor, is well known by modern glass makers. This specimen is considered by some to be the work of Roman artists; by others it is thought to be of the Grecian school. As a work of art it ranks next to the "Portland Vase," and the figures and foliage, all elegant and expressive, (and representative of the season of harvest,) demonstrate most fully the great artistic merit of the designer.

Among the numerous specimens of ancient glass now in the British Museum, there are enough of the Egyptian and Roman manufacture, to impress us with profound respect for the art as pursued by the earlier workers in glass. Among them is a fragment considered as the "ne plus ultra" of the chemical and manipulatory skill of the ancient workers. It is described as consisting of no less than five layers or strata of glass, the interior layer being of the usual blue color, with green and red coatings, and each strata separated from and contrasted with the others by layers of white enamel skillfully arranged by some eminent artist of the Grecian school. The subject is a female reposing upon a couch, executed in the highest style of art. It presents a fine specimen of gem engraving. Among the articles made of common material, are a few green vases about fifteen inches high, in an excellent state of preservation, and beautiful specimens of workmanship. In the formation of the double handles and curves, these vases evince a degree of skill unattained by the glass blowers of the present period.

The specimens taken from the tombs at Thebes are also numerous. Their rich and varied colors are proofs of the chemical and inventive skill of the ancients. These specimens embrace not only rich gems and mosaic work, but also fine examples of the

lachrymatory vase. Some of the vases are made from common materials, with very great skill and taste. The specimen of glass coin, with hieroglyphical characters, must not be omitted; as also a miniature effigy of the Egyptian idol "Isis"—a specimen of which proves that the Egyptians must have been acquainted with the art of *pressing* hot glass into metallic molds, an art which has been considered of modern invention. English glass makers considered the patent pillar glass a modern invention until a Roman vase was found, (it is now to be seen in the Polytechnic Institution in London,) being a complete specimen of pillar molding. Pillat states in his work, that he had seen an ancient drinking vessel of a Medrecan form, on a foot of considerable substance, nearly entire, and procured from Rome; which had the appearance of having been blown in an open-and-shut mold, the rim being afterwards cut off and polished. This is high authority, and, with other evidences that might be cited, goes far to prove that the ancients used molds for pressing, and also for blowing molded articles, similar to those now in use.

Specimens of colored glass pressed in beautiful forms for brooches, rings, beads, and similar ornaments are numerous. Of those of Roman production many specimens have been found in England. Some of these were taken from the Roman barrows. In Wales glass rings have been found; they were vulgarly called "snake stones," from the popular notion that they were produced by snakes, but were in fact rings used by the Druids as a charm with which to impose upon the superstitious. We find, too, that the specific gravity of the specimens referred to, ranges from 2,034 to 3,400, proving that oxide of lead to have been used in their manufacture—the mean gravity of modern flint glass being 3,200.

From what we gather from the foregoing facts, we are inclined to the belief that, in fine fancy work, in colors and in the imitation of gems, the ancient glass makers excelled the modern ones. They were also acquainted with the art of making and using molds both for blown and pressed glass, and forming what in England is now called patent pillar glass. All these operations, however, were evidently on a very limited scale, their views being mainly directed to the production of small but costly articles. Although in the time of the Roman manufacturers vases of extra size were made, requiring larger crucibles and furnaces than those used by the glass makers of Tyre, yet it is evident that they produced few articles except such as were held sacred for sepulchral purposes, or designed for luxury. And while they possessed the knowledge of the use of molds to press and blow glass by expansion, it does not appear that they produced any articles for domestic use. If it were not thus, some evidences would be found among the various specimens which have been preserved.

J. D.

DORNE'S GOLD MINE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

A correspondent of the *Dahlonega Signal* furnishes the subjoined statement of the monthly receipts of the gold mine of William B. Dorne, in Abbeville District, South Carolina:—

In the month of March 8 hands yielded.....dwts.	28,430
" " April " "	17,172
" " May " "	14,420½
In June, and to 23d July 8 hands yielded.....	14,039
Total	84,061½

Making in all, from the 1st of March last, to the 23d inst., the sum of 84,061½ dwts. with only eight hands, and a small circle mill, propelled by two mules, which only pulverize about fifteen bushels of ore per day. I have no doubt that one of our best pounding mills in Lumpkin in one day, in such ore as this mine produces, would make twenty-five or thirty thousand dollars.

The vein widens as they go down and retains its usual richness. They are not yet within forty feet of water level. Should it pass water level and retain its present size and richness, the probability is that its end will never be reached by the present generation. If the rich shoot that he is now operating out at water level, he has then got the best gold mine that I know anything about. The vein shows plainly on the surface, a distance of three-quarters of a mile in length, and has been tested in various places, which shows a width of something like four feet, and tests to be worth from one to two dollars per bushel, and seventy or eighty feet of that above water level.

TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN MANUFACTURES, ETC.

The home trade of the United Kingdom, in produce and manufactures of every description, according to BRAITHWAITE POOLE, Esq., comprises about 290,000,000 tons in weight, and nearly £600,000,000 in value per annum, including the agricultural produce of the country, which amounts to 180,000,000 tons and £240,000,000; the ordinary amount of farming stock on hand being £200,000,000.

The foreign imports average 6,000,000 tons, and £100,000,000 in value, of which 250,000 tons are re-exported, equivalent to £9,000,000.

The exports of British and Irish produce and manufacture, from the United Kingdom, amount to 5,000,000 tons, equivalent to £65,000,000.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

CONSULAR DUTIES.

We see evidences, on all sides, of a growing interest in our consulate abroad, with a better understanding of their duties, and a more just appreciation of their importance. These institutions have respect to the life, safety, and comfort of Americans in foreign countries; they are essential to our commercial interests; they may be made the instruments of bringing to us important information, and of diffusing just impressions in regard to our country and its inhabitants among foreign nations. Lord Palmerston declared in the British Parliament, a few years since, *that he had read every communication from the British consulates, and that he deemed their correspondence to be the most important that was received by the government.*

An illustration of the scope and capacity of our consulates is presented by our consul at Paris, Mr. Goodrich. Although discharging his ordinary duties in a manner which has merited and received the approbation of all parties at home and abroad, and at the same time, he has lately published a geographical, statistical, and historical view of the United States, in the French language, which will probably do more to make our country known abroad, than any other work, (if we except the *Merchants' Magazine,*) which has ever been published. It has not only been noticed with commendation in the leading journals of Paris, but referred to by the President of the French Republic, as well as other persons of eminent political and scientific position in France.

We trust the attention of Congress will speedily be directed to the subject of remodeling our consular system, and especially to the importance of having our consuls placed on a proper basis; and that men specially qualified to fill their office, may be always selected. Consuls should be familiar with the language and manners of the country to which they are sent; they should be men of large and varied information, and of sober and prudent character. Without these qualifications they cannot be safely intrusted with the important and delicate duties belonging to their office.

AMERICAN ENTERPRISE AT SYDNEY.

The following is an extract of a letter to a gentleman in London, dated Sydney, Jan. 27, 1852:—"The Yankees will soon get masters of this market if we do not get a better line of ships or steam communication between here and England. The first clipper-ship from the United States arrived here last week. She left Boston five days after the news of our discovery was known, and made the passage here in 95 days, bringing news from England up to the 4th of October, whilst, by the direct way, we have no later dates than the 18th of Sept. A portion of her cargo consisted of 'wooden buckets' for the miners. I think we shall soon be sufficiently supplied with this article direct from America. Please, therefore, not to send us any buckets of this description."

"COMPETITION IN TRADE" NOT "THE LIFE OF BUSINESS."

The *Commercial Register*, a well conducted sheet, in a recent editorial has some sensible remarks touching the oft-repeated maxims—"Competition, the Life of Trade" and "Live and let Live," and as they are too good to be lost, we transfer them to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

Competition in trade is considered the life of business. We do not pretend to set up our opinions in opposition to the established and acknowledged proverbs of our fathers, but we do differ, in some particulars, with the spirit of the adage quoted above. It might be qualified and amended. Honorable competition is a means of creating trade, and develops the capacity of men. But that competition that seeks every means in its power to monopolize trade, by reducing prices, is far from the life of business, but is, in fact, its very death. Fair, upright, honorable dealing, will always be sure to meet its reward—although the returns may not be immediate, and it is better to compete fairly and openly, than secretly and covertly. We live in excitement, and life is a constant battle. In this country, where competition does not exist to the extent that it prevails in Europe, we have but a faint conception of its injurious tendency, when carried to excess, and know but little of the schemes, resorted to there, to secure trade. In the great battle of existence, as seen in the old world, men resort to every species of trick to secure success in business, and every device is used to obtain custom. This spirit is, unfortunately, on the increase in this country, and men undersell each other oftentimes, to the injury of themselves as well as those whose trade they seek to destroy. We are of those who hold to the sentiment, "Live, and let live;" and we consider it a golden rule. It is at variance with that motive which prompts a man to undersell his neighbor, for the purpose of obtaining his customers, and deserves to be practiced more than it is. There is no selfishness in it; but, on the contrary, a spirit of liberality and Christianity, worthy of our attention and adoption. If business men were to study their true interest, there would be less competition among us than there is at present, and there would be fewer complaints about dull times, and not so many failures as now. The spirit of competition when carried to excess, tends to degrade men, and make them heartless, selfish, and even cruel; and if not checked, leads to distrust, enmity, and uncharitableness. A disposition to fair dealing does much to destroy it, and makes our situation less irksome than if we engage in it with full determination to advance our own interests, to the injury of others. There is a living, and more, for all of us, without endeavoring to deprive each other of the means of livelihood, and if we throw aside that spirit of selfishness that prompts to excessive competition, we will benefit ourselves as well as others, and "do unto others as we would they should do unto us."

PRIZES FOR COMMERCIAL ARTICLES;

Mr. W. Parker Hammond, of the firm of Messrs. Hammond & Co., London, offers the following premiums—£50 for the best "Essay on China," embracing the following points: The capabilities of that empire to consume the manufactures of Britain, and existing impediments thereto. The effect of the present British tea duties on its consumption, and on the China trade generally, and the probable influence thereon on a reduction of duty. The opium trade, and its effect upon the commerce and morals of China and India. General remarks on the empire of Japan, and the prospects of the trade therewith. Suggestions as to the most efficient mode of extending Christianity in China. £50 for the best "Essay on the Eastern Archipelago," including the Philippines and the Gulf of Siam, embracing the following points: Piracy, its extent and effect on the price of Straits produce and the consumption of British manufactures. The best means of suppression or prevention. The commercial capabilities of the countries alluded to, and existing impediments to their expansion. Christianity—the best means of its extension therein. The object of Mr. Hammond in offering these premiums is, to promote the interests of religion and commerce in the China seas and eastern Archipelago, in connection with the design of the great exhibition. He proposes that the rewards should be given in cash, or in gold medals of equal value, at the option of the successful competitors. Judges are to be appointed to decide on the merits of the essays,—and the last day of next October is fixed on as the limit within which manuscripts must be sent in. It is further proposed that a selection of the manuscripts be made, and the copyright of them be disposed of, and published with the name of each essayist attached, and the net proceeds ratably allotted to the

writers, or, with their consent, disposed of as may be considered by the judges most likely to promote the objects treated on. Detailed statements of the conditions to be observed in competing for the premiums can be obtained from the Secretary of the Society of Arts.

HINTS TO MERCHANTS ON ADVERTISING.

We cut from an exchange paper, and publish for the benefit of the two parties the most interested—the merchants and the "mediums"—not knocking—the subjoined homily on advertising.

"Our merchants are doing the handsome thing, in informing the people where the good bargains can be made, for proof of which see our advertising columns. It is just as certain that the man who advertises freely will do the business, as it is that everybody likes to buy cheap and good goods. If a man has got goods that are not fit to be seen nor bought, it is sensible in him not to inform people of what he has got, nor invite them to look at his stock. The same thing is true of all branches of business, mechanical trades, etc. People look in the papers now-a-days, if they want information in relation to all these matters, and the man that wants their custom must get it by reaching them through the public print.

"'Oh, Fudge!' says some old granny of a man, 'that is all to get a few dollars out of me for advertising. I'm too smart for that. If anybody wants my goods or work, I think they will find me, advertise or no advertise. I think I'd save that money.'—Very well; the printer is not half as much a loser as yourself. Try it for a year, and then come to a painful realizing sense that your neighbor has entirely outstripped you in business, and wonder why it is that everybody is running to him when your goods are as good as his. Ah! 'there's the rub.' People won't believe that a man has got good Goods, if they are not good enough to be advertised. 'That's the way they all do now,' and if any man pleases to be singular, let him do it at his own cost: we have warned him in due season."

THE CLOVES OF COMMERCE.

The article known in commerce as cloves, are the unopened flowers of a small evergreen that resembles in appearance the laurel or the bay. It is a native of the Molucca, or Spice Islands, but has been carried to all the warmer parts of the world, and is largely cultivated in the tropical regions of America. The flowers are small in size, and grow in large numbers in clusters at the very ends of the branches. The cloves we use are the flowers gathered before they are opened, and whilst they are still green. After being gathered, they are smoked by a wood fire, and then dried in the sun. Each clove consists of two parts, a round head, which is the four petals or leaves of the flower rolled up, inclosing a number of small stalks or filaments. The other part of the clove is terminated with four points, and is, in fact, the flower-cup, and the unripe seed-vessel. All these parts may be distinctly shown if a few leaves are soaked for a short time in hot water, when the leaves of the flowers soften, and readily unroll. The smell of cloves is very strong and aromatic, but not unpleasant. Their taste is pungent, acrid, and lasting. Both the taste and smell depend on the quantity of oil they contain. Sometimes the oil is separated from the cloves before they are sold, and the odor and taste in consequence is much weakened by this proceeding.

COMMERCE IN SICILY.

The official journal contains a variety of decrees more or less interesting. Those relating to commerce are important. The trade of the free port of Messina has been crippled for a long time, owing to the vexatious regulations of the custom-house, which even after the full restoration of the freedom of the port of Messina, prohibited goods to be freely circulated from that depot throughout the kingdom of the two Sicilies. A royal decree, bearing date April 20, 1852, (Palermo) permits the exportation of foreign goods to all parts of the royal dominions. This is highly favorable to the interest of merchants and British interests generally, as nearly the whole of the trade of Sicily is in the hands of English houses. Prince Satriano, the lord-lieutenant, has insisted on these new arrangements, to which the Neapolitan Minister of Finance was long opposed.

DR. PALEY ON THE FISHERY QUESTION.

In the Bridgeport edition of PALEY, 1827; p. 64, chap. xi. occurs the following under the head of "General Rights of Mankind":—

"If there be fisheries which are inexhaustible, as, for aught I know, the cod fishery on the Banks of Newfoundland and the herring fishery in the British seas, are, then all those conventions, by which one or two nations claim to themselves and guarantee to each other the exclusive enjoyment of those *fisheries, are so many encroachments upon the general rights of mankind.*"

"Upon the same principle may be determined a question which makes a great figure in books of Natural Law, '*Utrum mare sit liberum*,' that is, as I understand it, whether the exclusive right of navigating particular seas, or a control over the navigation of those seas, can be claimed consistently with the law of nations by any nation? What is *necessary for each nation's safety*, we allow; as their own bays, creeks, and harbors, the sea that is contiguous to—that is within cannon shot, or three leagues of the coast. And upon the same principle of *safety* (*if upon any principle*) must be defended the claim of the Venetian state to the Adriatic, of Denmark to the Baltic, of Great Britain to the seas which invest the island.

PHILOSOPHY OF MONEY.

The *Dutchman* very justly observes that the moment money becomes cheap, up goes the price of beef and potatoes, so that it makes but very little difference to anybody save gold diggers and borrowers, whether the yield of gold mines be one ton a year or one thousand tons. Since the discovery of gold in California, interest has fallen some 40 per cent, while rents have gone up seventy-five. The idea that the quantity of comfort in the world depends on the quantity of money in it, is, therefore, all moonshine. Double the present supply of gold, and we would double the price of every article for which gold is given in exchange—so that it makes "no difference to nobody" whether half the mountains in California are composed of precious metals or not. Things will find their level, and if an hour's labor in California will produce an ounce of gold, the time will soon come when an ounce of gold will be given for an hour's cobbling. The quantity of labor necessary to produce an article determines its value. Make gold dust as common as gravel, and it would bring the same price per peck.

PEARL FISHERIES IN PANAMA BAY.

The Panama *Herald*, of a late date, gives an interesting account of the pearl fisheries in Panama Bay. About fifteen hundred persons are engaged in the business, and the value of the pearls obtained varies from $80,000 to $150,000 per annum, seldom less than $100,000. The best divers remain under water from fifty-eight to sixty-one seconds, and generally bring up from twelve to fifteen pearl shells. The price of pearls varies according to their purity, shape, and weight, say from ten to five thousand dollars per ounce. From five hundred to fifteen hundred are very frequently paid in Panama for a single pearl, not weighing more than three-sixteenths of an ounce.

EFFECT OF REDUCED CUSTOMS DUTIES IN AUSTRIA.

The returns from the department of customs for the month of March are of a nature to discourage all sticklers for prohibition. Instead of a falling off in the revenue, consequent upon the new tariff, the imports have increased more than in proportion to the reduction of the duties. The custom-house receipts for March, 1852, exceed the returns for the same month in 1851, by 66,282 florins, (convention currency,) and the increase is on the very articles the duty upon which has been most lowered.

A BENEVOLENT BANKER.

The Staunton (Va.) *Spectator* states that Mr. Corcoran the wealthy Washington banker, was recently informed by the lady philanthropist, Miss Dix, of the destitute condition of a deaf and dumb orphan girl of Washington, who had been unable to obtain a place in the Northern institutions. Mr. Corcoran immediately sent to Miss Dix, a check for a sufficient amount to maintain and educate the girl, with the distinct condition that she should be taken to the Virginia institution, where she is now comfortably located.

THE BOOK TRADE.

THE BOOK TRADE OF FRANCE.

From the last number of the *Journal de l'Imprimerie* for 1851, we gather the following statistics of the productions of the French printing houses during the last ten years. Seven thousand three hundred and fifty works in living and dead languages, published in 1851, thus:—

1851	7,350	1845	6,521
1850	7,608	1844	6,477
1849	7,378	1843	6,009
1848	7,234	1842	6,445
1847	5,530		
1846	5,816	In 10 years	64,568

or an average per year of 6,486 works. The same presses printed in 1851, 485 musical works, and in the ten years, 3,336, or an annual average of 333.

There has also been published 1,014 engravings and lithographs, and during the 10 years, 13,085, or an average of 1,308.

Two hundred and fifty-three maps and topographical plans have also been published during the year; during the ten years, 1,005, or a mean of 100 a year.

Thus it appears that nearly in every department of press-work, the year 1851 is in advance of the average of the last ten years. The grand total of works published in France during these ten years, engravings, musical works, maps, and plans, is 81,994.

1.—*Ancient Egypt under the Pharaohs.* By JOHN KENRICK, M. A. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 427 and 448. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The aim of the able author of this work has been to present to the historical student a comprehensive view of the results of the combined labors of travelers and artists, interpreters and critics, during the whole period since the discovery of the hieroglyphical characters. It describes, as known to us at present, the land and the people of Egypt, their arts and sciences, their civil institutions and their religious faith and usages, and relates their history from the earliest records of the monarchy to its final absorption in the empire of Alexander. The sources, both ancient and modern, from which the information has been derived, are indicated, and no accessible materials have been intentionally neglected. The geography of the country, its population and language, its cities, agriculture, navigation, Commerce, arts, science, learning, manners, customs, religion, rites, theology, dynasties, &c., &c., form the subjects of its pages. The reader will find it prepared with great intelligence and ability. Embracing the contents of a vast number of volumes, and the results of arduous labors, it has a value and importance beyond any single work on this interesting subject.

2.—*The Master Builder, or Life at a Trade.* By DAY KELLOGG LEE. 12mo., pp 322. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Presuming that there is a romance in every true character and in all the great labors of life, this is an attempt to describe the romance of those simple yet sublime pursuits, which are the hope of our Republic and the glory of her people. "Life at a Trade" is here represented, as some mechanics may perhaps think, in too glowing colors. The scenes of nature are described with much minuteness and fidelity, and the interest of the story is generally well sustained.

3.—*Life of Franklin Pierce.* By NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE. 12mo., pp. 144. Boston Ticknor, Reed, & Fields.

This is not a political work, but a tribute of friendship to one who, at the present moment, engrosses a large amount of public attention. Of course it is well done, as anything from the pen of Hawthorne is sure to be—even the most confirmed political opponents of this presidential candidate, who possess literary taste, might find in the subject as here presented, charms such as they never before anticipated.

4.—*Japan; an Account, Geographical and Historical, from the Earliest Period at which the Islands composing this Empire were known to Europeans, down to the Present Time, and the Expedition fitted out in the United States, &c.* By CHARLES MCFARLANE. With numerous illustrations. 12mo., pp. 365. New York: George P. Putnam.

It has often been asserted that very little is known by us of Japan. This is not strictly true. Our information respecting the people of that island is nearly as extensive as of the people of almost any one of the countries of the East. But it is scattered through a large number of volumes which have been written between 1560 and 1838. The writers have been chiefly Germans and Dutch, whose works are quite voluminous. The Portuguese, Spanish, and Italians have also in their languages many original works on the same subject. It is from these sources, and the conversation of intelligent travelers, that the materials of this interesting volume have been obtained. It is extensively illustrated, and furnishes a very satisfactory account of the general character and customs of that secluded people.

5.—*A New England Tale, and Miscellanies.* By CATHERINE M. SEDGWICK, author of "Clarence," "Redwood," "Hope Leslie," &c. 12mo., pp. 388. New York: George P. Putnam.

The principal tale in this volume made its appearance some thirty years ago, at a time when the stock of Native-American literature was scanty. It was received with great favor, and passed through several editions in the course of a year or two. Time has not diminished its reputation, either as a faithful delineation of New England character, or an agreeable and instructive story. The publisher deserves the thanks of the American public for his reproduction of the works of Miss Sedgwick in a style that cannot fail of securing for them a place in every well-selected family library. The additional tales embraced in the present volume, "are now for the first time resuscitated, after a decent interment in the magazines. Thus we have in one volume the earlier and the later writings of one of our best novelists.

6.—*Walks and Talks of an American Farmer in England in the years* 1851 *and* 1852. Part 2. 12mo., pp. 192. New York: G. P. Putnam.

Rustic and rural manners, as they strike a party of young Americans walking through some of the western and southern parts of England, compose the contents of this interesting book. The author writes in a simple, unaffected style, describing much that is novel to the American reader, and presenting very pleasant pictures of rural life in the old country. The volume is one of the recent numbers of Putnam's Semi-Monthly Library, the first part of which was issued some time since.

7.—*Crimes of the House of Austria against Mankind, proved by Extracts from the Histories of Coxe, Schiller, Robertson, Grattan, and Sismondi, with Mrs. M. L. Putnam's History of the Constitution of Hungary, and its Relations with Austria, published in May,* 1850. Edited by E. P. PEABODY. Second Edition. 12mo., pp. 230. New York: G. P. Putnam.

As the title indicates, so the reader will perceive that this volume consists chiefly of passages of Hungarian history. They are very important ones, which have been collected from unquestionable sources, and tend to show the necessity and justice of the Hungarian cause. This second edition has received some improvements upon the former one.

8.—*Glossology: Being a Treatise on the Nature of Language and on the Language of Nature.* By CHAS. KRAITZIR, M. D. 12mo., pp. 240. New York: published for the author by G. P. Putnam.

This is a treatise which is far more learned than wise. The author aims to introduce some new and striking views respecting the elements of language and education, but his subject is presented in so uninviting a manner that we fear his book will meet with a neglect to which it is not justly entitled.

9.—*Sicily; a Pilgrimage.* By HENRY T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 188. New York: G. P. Putnam.

Putnam's Semi-Monthly Library, number sixteen, consists of this pleasant and admirably written tour in Sicily by Tuckerman.

10.—*Virginia and Magdalene; or, the Foster Sisters. A Novel.* By EMMA D. E. N. SOUTHWORTH. 8vo., pp. 158. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

11.—*Pioneer Women of the West.* By Mrs. Ellett. 12mo., pp. 436. New York: Charles Scribner.

This admirable volume may be regarded as a supplement to the memoirs of the "Women of the Revolution," by the same author. It is the story of the wives and mothers who ventured into the Western wilds, and bore their part in the struggles and labors of the early pioneers. The materials of the volume have been gathered from the most authentic sources in the Western States, and thus the sketches exhibit not only the character of many a pioneer matron, but afford a picture of the times in the progressive settlement of the whole country from Tennessee to Michigan. They embrace domestic life and manners, illustrative anecdotes, with a notice of such political events as had an influence on the condition of the country. The number of women noticed is nearly seventy; their lives would not be presented with the fullness of the pages, without spreading before the reader a very distinct picture of early life in the Western wilds. As a volume it is written in the best style of the author, and the interest of the reader, ever arrested, is retained throughout.

12.—*Anglo-American Literature and Manners.* From the French of Philarete Charles, Professor in the College of France. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: Charles Scribner.

This is the work of a French author who has undertaken a survey of American literature and manners, without possessing sufficient sympathy and familiarity with the subject to render justice to it. He thus exposes himself to assaults and obloquy from which his talents and merits should shield him. His views are novel and striking, and worthy to be read by all who desire to see how some writers think of us. There is a vein of French egotism, the most insipid of all egotism, interspersed in his pages. The translation is well rendered.

13.—*The Lives of Winfield Scott and Andrew Jackson.* By J. T. Headley. 12mo., pp. 341. New York: C. Scribner.

Every political design is disavowed by the author in commencing his book with the life of one of the candidates for the Presidency, inasmuch as it was written before the nomination was made. The work speaks in high terms of praise of both heroes. It is written in that bold, somewhat exaggerated style which is calculated to make an impression upon the popular mind.

14.—*The Clifford Family; or, a Tale of the Old Dominion.* By One of her Daughters. 12mo., pp. 425. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Virginia life and manners possess many of the elements for elevated romance. These have been well used in this volume, and we are presented with many truthful, genial, and charming pictures of life in the Old Dominion. The story is well told, is excellent in sentiment, and will find a multitude of admirers.

15.—*The School for Fathers. An old English Story.* By T. Gwynne. 12mo., pp. 205. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is a plain and quite entertaining story of olden times. It is written in a pure and clear style, full of gracefulness and attraction.

16.—*The Portrait of Washington.* New York: William Stearns.

This is a very fine and beautiful engraving from the only original portrait of Washington, by Stuart. The correctness of the likeness has always been beyond a question. The execution of the painting was in the finest style of the art, and the engraving by T. B. Welch has received the highest encomiums from the best qualified judges. As a work of art and a portrait of the noble Washington, it should find a place in every American family.

17.—*The Geral-Milco: or the Narrative of a Residence in a Brazilian Valley of the Sierra Paricis.* By A. B. M. Payne. 12mo., pp. 264. New York: Charles B. Norton.

An entertaining picture of a tour into parts of South America, with descriptions of scenes and characters—quite strange. It is written in a lively style and forms quite an agreeable book.

18.—*The Guerrilla Chief; or, the Romance of War.* Illustrated. 8vo., pp. 233. New York: H. Long & Brothers.

19.—*Lives of Wellington and Peel. From the London Times.* 12mo., pp. 207. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume forms one of the numbers of "Appleton's Popular Library of the best Authors," a series of works which are winning the highest place among the popular publications of the day. The pages of this volume contain the very able biographical sketches in the *London Times* of Peel and Wellington, published soon after their decease, and the leading articles of the paper on the day of their deaths. They are admirable papers, and amply repay a careful perusal.

20.—*Poems.* By MATTIE GRIFFITH. Now first collected. 12mo., pp. 167. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a volume of sweet and charming poetry. The author writes with a pen touched with the true poetic inspiration, and the lovers of the Muses will find great pleasure in her pages.

21.—*Men's Wives.* By WM. M. THACKERAY. 12mo., pp. 278. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is another of those works of unsurpassed humor, of which the graceful pen of Thackeray is so fertile. It is published as a volume of Appleton's Popular Library, and is an exceedingly agreeable book.

22.—*Contentment Better than Wealth.* By ALICE B. NEAL. 12mo., pp. 186. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is one of those graphic and genial tales which absorb the feelings of the youthful reader, while they convey to the mind the purest and most disinterested sentiments. It cannot fail to impart gratification to all.

23.—*Stories from "Blackwood."* 12mo., pp. 261. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume forms one of the numbers of Appletons' Popular Library. It consists of some of the most agreeable and entertaining papers of *Blackwood's Magazine*—such as the "The First and Last Dinner," "Malavatti," "The Avenger," &c., &c.

24.—*Rome and the Abbey.* By the author of "Geraldine." 12mo., pp. 408. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

The chief features of this tale consists in presenting to the reader, the course of a young *religeuse* from her entrance into the Roman Church. The various ceremonials etc., are interwoven with an interesting tale, and the growth of religious impressions in her mind is very fully delineated.

25.—*Literature and Art.* By S. MARGARET FULLER. With an Introduction, by HORACE GREELEY. 12mo., pp. 320. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

Margaret Fuller, afterwards the Countess d'Ossoli, is well known to all by the melancholy fate of herself and family. She had acquired by her writings an extensive and substantial reputation. This volume is one which was originally prepared by herself for the press. It contains quite a number of essays upon literary subjects; to many of these she is in part entitled for her reputation, although her other works have obtained high success.

26.—*Waverley Novels. Abbotsford Edition.* Vols. 5 and 6. 12mo., pp. 264 and 296. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

These volumes contain "The Monastery" and "Ivanhoe." This is a very fine edition, and published at a very low price.

27.—*Stories of Ancient Rome.* By T. W. RICOND. 12mo., pp., 305. With Illustrations. New York: M. W. Dodd.

In these pages we are presented with a sketch of Roman history from the foundation of the city to the expulsion of the Kings. The outlines of the characters of the chief personages, such as Romulus, &c., are drawn in a style suited to the understanding of youthful readers. It is attractive, useful, and instructive.

28.—*The Spirit World; or, the Caviler Answered.* By JOEL H. ROSS, M. D. 18mo., pp. 285. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This is a volume written under a strong religious influence, with the design to stimulate all to walk carefully, watchfully, and prayerfully through this dark valley to the religious world.

29.—*The Lost Senses, Deafness and Blindness.* By JOHN KITTO, D. D. 12 mo., pp. 377. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

The author of this volume and several others of importance, was, at an early period of his life, afflicted with blindness and deafness. His intellectual acquisitions were almost entirely made subsequently to this misfortune. Having thus suffered for a long period of his life from these evils, they necessarily became prominent subjects before his mind. He has consequently collected and arranged in these pages a large mass of facts in relation to individuals suffering under the loss of either of those senses. These are interspersed extensively with genial thoughts and reflections, all of which breathe a grave and devotional spirit. They are written in an interesting style and will afford both improvement and profit to a large number of readers.

30.—*Daily Bible Illustrations; being Original Readings for a Year on Subjects from Sacred History, Biography, Geography, Antiquities, and Theology, especially designed for the Family Circle.* By JOHN KITTO, D. D. Evening Series. Isaiah and the Prophets. 12mo., pp. 418. Robert Carter & Brothers.

This volume completes the series of illustrations of the Old Testament by this author. It forms a very interesting compilation, and in the family circle is worthy to be regarded as one of the most valuable of the works in explanation of the subjects of sacred history.

31.—*Lectures on the Works and Genius of Washington Alston.* By WILLIAM WARE. 12mo., pp. 142. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The theme and the writer of this volume possess attractions of no ordinary interest. Alston the eminent painter, and Ware the accomplished scholar, are in conjunction. The contents are three lectures upon the genius of Alston and his "Lesser and Larger" pictures. They are given to the public as they were left by the author at his decease. The criticism is an expression of the result of a long and delightful study of the subject, and conveys the candid impressions of the author. Every lover of the fine arts, or of true manliness and refined scholarship will delight to peruse these pages.

32.—*Autobiography of Rev. Tobias Spicer; Containing Incidents and Observations, also some Account of His Visit to England.* 12mo., pp. 309. New York: Lane & Scott.

At the Annual Conference of the Methodists at Troy, in 1847, a request was made that the author should prepare this volume with special reference to his experience, opinions, and observations, in relation to Methodism. His labors have been confined mostly to that conference, and the incidents related in the volume have occurred within his experience in those limits. The public is here presented with an intelligent outline of the practical operation of Methodism, and the general views entertained by the mass of those who conform to this system of religious faith.

33.—*The Upper Ten Thousand; Sketches of American Society.* By C. ASTOR BRISTED. Second Edition. 12mo., pp. 275. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

These sketches originally appeared in *Frazer's London Magazine*, and are reprinted here with the presumption, upon good evidence, that the name prefixed is that of the real author. They are lively, graphic delineations of high life in New York drawn with a pointed pen.

34.—*Meyer's Universum, in Half-Monthly Parts, Illustrated with Drawings by the First Artists.* Parts 5 and 6. New York: H. J. Meyer.

This is a very tasteful and elegant work. The illustrations are finely executed, and the literary matter is entertaining and instructive. These parts contain plates of "Notre-Dame Cathedral," "Plato's School," "Hudson River near Newburg," and "Calcutta;" "Roman Aqueduct in Segovia," "Chamouni Village and Valley," "Civita Castellina, Italy," and "The Castle and Monastery of Illock, Hungary."

35.—*Boydell's Illustrations of Shakspeare. Nos.* 46, 47, 48, *and* 49. New York: J. Spooner.

The wonderful engravings, of the elegance of which we have often spoken, are further continued in these numbers, which consist of a representation of Falstaff and Hal, in King Henry IV.; Southampton and Henry, in King Henry V.; Shakspeare nursed by Tragedy and Comedy; the Death of the Cardinal in Henry VI.; King Richard III. and the Prince, from the play of Richard III.; Desdemona Sleeping; a Field of Battle, from Henry VI.; and another view of Desdemona asleep.

36.—*Northwood; or, Life at the North and South.* By Mrs. Sarah J. Hale. Illustrated. 12mo., pp. 999. New York: H. Long & Brother.

This work is written in that genuine spirit of Christian philanthropy which knows "no North and no South," except as forming parts of one great and glorious Union, of which all the citizens, in every quarter, are brethren. It is marked by strong and excellent sense, is written in an animated and interesting style, and delineates with great fidelity and justness many of the striking traits both of Northern and Southern character. It does justice to the peculiar and embarrassing circumstances of the South, and sets forth many important principles, the practice of which would cement the Union, and foster the prosperity of all portions of the country. We are gratified, for the sake of the "good and gifted" author, to learn that there is a very extensive sale of this work.

37.—*The National Portrait Gallery of Distinguished Americans, with Biographical Sketches, Containing upwards of One Hundred and Twenty Engraved Portraits of the Most Eminent Persons in the History of the United States.* 8vo. Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4. Philadelphia: R. Peterson. New York: Wm. Terry.

The portraits contained in these numbers are those of Gen. Washington and his wife Martha, Thomas Jefferson, John Hancock, Chas. Carroll, W. Irving, Wm. White, John Marshall, Gen. Scott, Gen. Anthony Wayne, and Commodore MacDonough. They are executed with much taste and skill, and generally the resemblance to the best paintings of the originals is very correct. The biographical sketches are general, yet embrace all the leading incidents in the lives of each individual.

38.—*The Art Journal for September and October.* New York and London: Geo. Virtue.

This unrivaled organ of the fine arts is embellished in its usual admirable style, and rich in artistic intelligence. The plates in the September number are "Lady Gadiva," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery; "Napoleon's Mother," from the statue by Canova; and the "Infant Bacchus," from a picture in the Vernon Gallery. In the October number the plates are "The Tired Soldier," and "Cupid Bound," from pictures in the Vernon Gallery; and the "Faithful Messenger," from the statue by Geefs at Antwerp—with numerous illustrations also of German art.

39.—*The Waverley Novels. Library Edition.* Vols. X. and XI. Boston: B. B. Mussey.

These volumes embrace "Kenilworth" and "The Abbot." The illustrations on wood are in the highest style of the art, and altogether this is one of the most desirable editions of the Scott novels that has yet been published.

40.—*Waverley Novels.* "Black Dwarf" and "Old Mortality." 8vo., pp. 124. Philadelphia: A. Hart.

This is the cheapest edition of the Waverley Novels at present published. The appearance, typography, &c., is quite fair.

41.—*The Old Engagement. A Spinster Story.* By Julia Day. 12mo., pp. 215. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

This is a simple narrative, the attraction of which must be chiefly sought for in the gracefulness and spirit with which it is related.

42.—*The University Speaker; a Collection of Pieces Designed for College Exercises in Recitation, with Suggestions on the Appropriate Elevation of Particular Passages.* By William Russell. 12mo., pp. 528. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The pieces in this volume consist of rhetorical, oratorical, and poetical extracts. They are selected with judgment and good taste, forming a book as meritorious as any of the kind.

43.—*Philosophers and Actresses.* By Arsene Houssaye. 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 411 and 406. New York: J. S. Redfield.

These volumes should be regarded as a second part of the "Men and Women of the Eighteenth Century"—a work by the same author, which has recently appeared. They are written with the same taste and interesting style of narrative. Intermingled with the lives are prominent events of an influential kind, which were remarkable in the career of individuals. The volumes contain sketches of Voltaire, Mademoiselle Gaussin, Callat, Tardiff, Chamfort, Madame Parabere, Prudhon, and very many others.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1852.

Art. I.—DEBTS AND FINANCES OF THE STATES OF THE UNION.

WITH REFERENCE TO THEIR GENERAL CONDITION AND PROSPERITY.

CHAPTER IX.*

The Western States—Illinois.

Among all the States of the Union which succumbed to the financial storm of 1836–40, none had more canvas spread, or so little ballast, as that gem of the West, Illinois; nevertheless, none has more promptly recovered its position, or more satisfactorily responded to the hopes of its friends, or the wishes of its creditors. The locality of Illinois is highly favorable for the development of its great natural resources, under the influence of modern improvements. The north-eastern extremity borders Lake Michigan.

* The first of this series of papers was published in the *Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review* for November, 1847, (vol. xvii., page 466.) That article, an introduction to the series, related chiefly to the State debts of Europe and of the United States. It was followed in the number for December, 1847, (vol. xvii., page 577,) by an article on the New England States, embracing Maine and Massachusetts; and in March, 1848, (vol. xviii., page 243,) by New York; in March, 1849, (vol. xx., page 256,) by Pennsylvania; in May, 1849, (vol. xx., page 481,) by Maryland; in August, 1849, (vol. xxi., page 148,) by Indiana; in October, 1849, (vol. xxi., page 389,) by Ohio; and in the number for February, 1850, (vol. xxii., page 131,) by an article on Michigan. The series, it will be seen by reference to the preceding chapters, with the exception of the first, published in November, 1847, have all appeared under the same general title prefixed to the present chapter. The articles contain the most comprehensive and reliable account of the debts, finances, and resources of the several States, that have ever been grouped in a connected and convenient form for reference—present and future.

The Wabash and the Ohio Rivers border it on the east and south, meeting there the Mississippi, which is its western boundary. The length of the State is 380 miles, north and south. The northern breadth is 140 miles expanding to 200 miles in the center, and terminating in a point at the south, thus forming the figure of a purse, which may be taken as an emblem of its destiny. The circuit of the State is 1,210 miles, of which 70 miles is lake coast, 550 miles the channel of the Mississippi, 140 miles the the Ohio, and 150 miles the channel of the Wabash, leaving 300 miles, or about one-fourth, for land lines. The surface of the State is remarkable. About two-thirds consists of prairies, that are numerous and extensive in the center and north. In the southern part the country is more broken, but nowhere are the elevations 200 feet above the general level. The prairies form wide expanses, stretching as far as the eye can reach, interspersed only occasionally by belts of wood land, following the streams. The surface is of such a dead level as to afford no water shed, and the fallen rains pass off by evaporation. There is much fine timber in Illinois, but it is confined to certain sections.

Illinois was very early settled by the French on the rich bottom, extending from the mouth of the Kaskaskia 90 miles northerly to the bluffs of Alton, having St. Louis on the opposite bank of the Mississippi. The soil is there 25 feet deep, and it has been said that land, planted annually for 200 years with wheat without dressing, is as fertile now as ever. In our article for August, 1849, upon the State of Indiana, we described the "North-West Territory" and its political progress, including Illinois. The disposition that has been made of the lands of Illinois, with the population of the State, is as follows:—

DISPOSITION OF LANDS IN ILLINOIS.

Area in acres	35,459,200
Area surveyed to January, 1851	35,455,669
Area proclaimed for sale	35,397,921
	Acres.
Sold	$15,832,157
Granted to schools	1,501,795
" universities	44,800
" Illinois and Michigan Canal	290,914
" Internal Improvements	209,086
" individuals	954
" seats of government	2,560
Bounties, military	5,685,640
Reserved salines	121,629
" Indians	48,989
Private claims	188,901
	$23,951,429
Swamp lands granted to States	1,833,412
Unsold, January, 1852 ..... acres	9,688,263
Granted to Central Railroad	2,572,000
Unsold balance ..... acres	7,116,263

The following table shows the quantity of land sold in the State annually, with the population at different times:—

LAND SOLD IN ILLINOIS.

Year.	Acres.	Population.	Year.	Acres.	Population.
1814	119,631	12,282	1833	359,537	
1815	104,255		1834	347,823	
1816	183,908		1835	2,062,707	272,427
1817	177,722		1836	3,088,554	
1818	220,449		1837	1,024,926	
1819	69,027		1838	790,698	
1820	13,138	55,211	1839	1,127,403	
1821	53,771		1840	388,233	476,183
1822	27,264		1841	298,274	
1823	59,820		1842	438,825	
1824	41,321		1843	445,469	
1825	45,555		1844	486,997	
1826	81,389		1845	481,105	662,125
1827	58,207		1846	460,967	
1828	92,402		1847	506,802	
1829	209,893		1848	250,000	
1830	314,407	157,445	1849	350,000	
1831	334,557		1850	200,000	851,470
1832	225,338		1851	200,000	

Years.	Acres sold.	Increase of population.	Acres per head increase.
1830 to 1835	3,330,062	114,982	25
1835 to 1840	6,419,814	203,756	32
1840 to 1845	2,150,670	185,942	11
1845 to 1850	2,609,509	189,355	14

The five years ending with 1840, embrace the years of great speculation, when the lands went into the hands of persons who got them on credit, and held them for speculation. More lands in the hands of speculators have been hanging upon the market in competition with the government lands, and with the 8,000,000 acres held by the State for various purposes, and sold from time to time. This depressed the average quantity of government lands sold in that State during the subsequent five years.

The State of Illinois very early commenced the system of public improvements by State loans. The opening of the New York and Erie Canal in 1824, gave an immense impulse to Western progress, and it will be observed in the table of land sales that they doubled in 1828 and 1829, continuing to increase until the bubble burst. The great success of the Erie Canal afforded a tempting example to Illinois, because her situation in relation to the lakes is nearly the same. She abuts on Lake Michigan as New York does on Lake Erie, and her great river, Illinois, holds the same relation to the State navigation as does the Hudson to Lake Erie. Hence, the connection of the two latter by the Erie afforded an exact model for the connection of the two former. As early as 1823, the route had been explored. The population was too sparse to undertake it, however, until, in 1829, Congress made the grant of 200,914 acres, mentioned in the above table, in aid of it. The State then passed an act to raise a loan of $500,000, to carry it on. The work was placed under a special commission, and was to extend from Peru, on the Illinois River, to the Chicago River, five miles from its mouth, say 100 miles. When that work was projected there were but about 15,000 families in the whole State, and the expense of the work was estimated at $8,654,337, yet this canal was but a subordinate part of an immense system of internal improvements for which an act was past in 1837. This act created a Board of Fund Commissioners to manage the fiscal concerns of the public works, and a Board of Public Works to determine routes and superintend the execution. This internal improvement system embraced the fol-

lowing works, showing the total length of each railroad projected in the State, and the aggregate length of all the railroads:—

	Miles.	Per mile.	Total.	Amount expended.
Central Railroad	457½	$8,326	$3,809,145	$145,765
Southern Cross Railroad	294	8,200	1,410,800	42,763
Northern Cross Railroad	234½	8,480	1,976,355	515,311
Shelbyville and Paris Branch Central Railroad	71½	19,588	757,113	51,203
Peoria and Warsaw Railroad	116	8,351	966,396	75,255
Alton and Shelbyville Railroad	71	8,295	754,845	5,200
Bellville and Lebanon Railroad	23½	7,000	164,700	371
Bloomington, Mackinaw, Peoria, and Pekin Railroad	53½	11,736	630,810	33,022
Total length	1,341½	.....	$11,470,444	$728,125
Canal estimate			8,654,337	
Total			$20,124,781	

In addition these were two banks—

State Bank of Illinois, capital $3,515,000, State interest	2,000,000	
Bank of Illinois, " 658,050, "	1,400,000	
Total	$23,524,781	

These were among the first projects of the young State. There were then 70,000 log-cabin farmers in the State, and these loans were about $300 each family. For all the purposes mentioned, stocks were issued.

The works commenced under this law, and the effort to sell the bonds at a moment when the financial horizon began to lower, and all other States were desperately pressing the market, produced ruinous losses. In 1842, the State debt had assumed the following shape.

ILLINOIS STATE DEBT, DECEMBER, 1842.

Bonds sold to the State Bank of Illinois, of account of bank stock	$1,765,000	
Bonds sold to Bank of Illinois, of account of bank stock	900,000	
		$2,665,000 00
Bonds sold to Irwin & Beers on account of Internal Improvements	1,000,000	
Bonds sold to N. Biddle	1,000,000	
" Hall & Hudson	100,000	
" Boorman & Johnson	100,000	
" Lieutenant Levy	4,000	
" January & Dunlap	300,000	
" M. B. Sherwood	50,000	
" John Delafield	283,000	
" A. H. Bangs	50,000	
" Erie County Bank	100,000	
" Bank of Commerce	100,000	
" Commercial Bank of Buffalo	100,000	
" Nevins & Townsand, by Dr. Barrett	180,000	
" E. Riggs, by Dr. Barrett	50,000	
" Bank of United States, by Dr. Barrett	100,000	
" M. Sherwood, by Dr. Barrett	100,000	
Bonds hypothecated to State Bank of Illinois, by Dr. Barrett	100,000	
Bonds sold to M. Kennedy and others, by J. D. Whiteside	120,000	
Bonds left with Macalister & Stebbins, by J. D. Whiteside on deposite, and by them sold	71,000	
		3,908,000 00

Bonds sold to J. Wright & Co., of London.	£89,225	
Bonds delivered to Thompson & Forman...	11,780	
Bonds pledged to Thompson & Forman...	41,625	
£122,550 equal to....		544,122 00
Bonds sold to State Bank, by J. D. Whiteside.....		100,000 00
		$7,217,122 00
Deduct 7 bonds of $1,000 each received from Commercial Bank of Buffalo.....		7,000 00
Balance.....		$7,210,122 00
Internal Improvement scrip, and scrip issued by Board of Auditors outstanding.....	896,669 94	
Cash obtained by Fund Commissioner upon 724 bonds of $1,000 each, hypothecated to Macalister & Stebbins, yet outstanding, as per statement of Fund Commissioner, with interest at the rate of 7 per cent per annum on this sum.....	172,405 00	
Sold to contractors on Northern Cross Railroad, 94 bonds of $1,000 each, 84 of which were hypothecated to Fund Commissioner, by the contractors, for the sum of $42,000, Illinois State Bank paper, leaving balance of $10,000.....	10,000 00	
		1,069,074 94
Total debt on account of bank and Internal Improvement bonds and scrip.....		$8,279,195 94
Illinois and Michigan Canal Stock.		
Bonds sold by government.....	1,000,000 00	
Amount sold by Governor Reynolds to President of the United States Bank.....	1,000,000 00	
Amount sold by Governor Reynolds and Gen. Rawlings to John Delafield.....	300,000 00	
Amount sold by Gen. Thornton on Canal.....	100,000 00	
" " " in London.....	1,000,000 00	
" advanced by Wright & Co. on contract with Judge Young and Governor Reynolds, £30,000, by terms of contract equal to...	145,188 00	
" bonds paid to contractors in 1841 and 1842..	197,000 00	
		3,742,188 00
" outstanding scrip.....	341,972 71	
" of certificates of indebtedness issued by Commissioners.....	254,747 00	
		596,719 71
Total canal debt.....		$4,338,907 71
Bonds outstanding on account of State House.....	116,000 00	
Amount due School, College, and Seminary Funds...	808,085 00	
" due State Bank for warrants paid.....	294,190 00	
		1,218,275 00
" due on account of surplus revenue.....	477,919 44	
Total debt upon which interest accrues.....		13,836,379 65

RECAPITULATION.

Total bank stock.....	$2,665,000 00
" Internal Improvement debt.....	5,614,196 94
" Canal debt.....	4,338,907 71
" State House.....	116,000 00
" School, College, and Seminary funds.....	808,085 00
" due State Bank for warrants.....	294,190 00
Total debt upon which interest accrues.....	$13,836,379 65

The annual interest on this debt was $830,182.

To meet these liabilities the State had the following resources at the time unavailable :—

Lands remaining unsold of Canal Grants .....acres		238,985 57
Lands granted to the State, under the provisions of an act entitled "An Act to Appropriate the Proceeds of the Sales of the Public Lands, and to grant Pre-emption Rights;" approved September 4th, 1841.		210,132 85
Lands purchased by the State for Internal Improvement purposes....		40,332 00
Amounting to.....		489,750 42
Amount due Canal Fund from sale of lands, town lots, stone, timber..		$201,964

In 1840, the following named purchasers of bonds had failed to pay for them according to contract, to wit:—

John Delafield, in the sum of.....	$433,000
A. H. Bangs.....	50,000
Bank of Commerce at Buffalo	90,000
Commercial Bank at Buffalo.....	90,000
Erie County Bank.....	97,500
Amounting to	$730,500

The bonds, as the names of the buying parties indicate, were put upon the market with little scruple. The New York Free Banking Law, which had been started in 1838, at that time allowed stocks of Western States to be taken as security for circulating bills, and this opened a market for many. The American Exchange Bank in New York, and the other institutions named, bought them for that purpose. Many of those banks failed utterly, and the State never got anything. General Thornton was sent to London by the contractors on the canal to sell the bonds they had taken from the State, and his terms were such as he could get. Messrs. Wright & Co. were a banking house largely interested in Cairo city, and through them $500,000 worth of railroad iron for the Central Railroad was procured on the bonds, and some cash advances for the use of that road in addition. The bonds sold to J. Delafield, of the New York Phœnix Bank, were to be paid for in instalments at par, on the condition that no more stock was to be put upon the market. The State, however, made an issue of sterling bonds, which knocked the market price down 20 per cent, and Delafield repudiated the contract, on the ground that the State had violated it. The State was now bankrupt, with all the public works incomplete. They remained in this position until 1843, when it was proposed to make the canal lands a special pledge for a sum necessary to complete the canal. This was estimated to require $1,600,000. Accordingly, the Legislature of Illinois passed a law for the purpose of raising the funds necessary to complete the Illinois and Michigan Canal, authorizing the Governor to place the canal and all the canal lands in trust for the security of the lenders. The main provisions of this act are—

"1. That the Governor should be authorized to negotiate a loan solely on the credit of the canal and its lands of $1,600,000, to bear 6 per cent annual interest. The holders of existing canal bonds, and other claims on the canal, are to have the first right to subscribe in proportion to their claims, and the claims in respect of which they so subscribe to be duly registered.

"That this canal and canal property should be vested in three trustees, one to be named by the Governor, and two by the subscribers to the loan.

"That at least $400,000 of this loan should be paid in during the course of the first year after the execution of the trust deeds.

"That the canal shall be finished in three years from the commencement of the trust.

"That no sales of the canal lands shall be made until three months after the completion of the canal, when the trustees are to offer them for sale.

"That all the proceeds of the canal and canal property should be first applied to the repayment of interest and principal of the proposed loan of $1,600,000.

"2. To payment of interest on the canal stock registered by holders who are subscribers to this new loan.

"3. To payment of interest on the canal stock, not so registered.

"4. To reimbursement of the registered canal stock held by the subscribers to the said loan; and after the due performance of these various engagements on the part of the trustees, the canal shall revert to the State of Illinois.

"The property assigned to trustees as security for the loan was as follows:—

The canal, that cost the State	$5,000,000
The lands, amounting to 230,476 acres, valued, after the completion of the canal, at $10 per acre	2,304,670
Lots in the various towns on the canal, valued at	1,900,000
Total	$9,204,670

Messrs. Ryan & Oakley were appointed commissioners to raise the amount, and aided by David Leavitt, Esq., President of the American Exchange Bank, which was a large holder of the canal bonds, succeeded in obtaining the required sum—the leading banking houses in London taking up the subject. The loan was completed, Messrs. David Leavitt and W. Swift were appointed trustees on behalf of the bondholders, and the work pushed to completion. The lands, on being sold, more than realized the estimated values on which the trust was based, and the revenues of the work have equalled expectations, so far as to leave but little room to doubt that the canal will soon, fulfilling its condition by discharging the canal indebtedness, revert to the State.

The other great work, and perhaps the most important to the State interest, is the great Central Railroad. This work, as mentioned in the above table, was to have been 457½ miles long, at an estimated cost of $8,809,145, and the State actually, before its failure, expended upon it $1,016,905, mostly for a depôt in Cairo, for clearing out the track, and in grading and embankments. The iron which had been purchased for this road was afterward sold at a loss. The Federal Government had a claim upon it for duties, it not having been laid upon the road within the time required by the then law for the remission duties. The works were going rapidly to destruction, but nothing was done until September 20, 1850, the Federal Congress made a grant of lands in aid of it. The following is a synopsis of that law:—

ACT OF CONGRESS DONATING LANDS.

SECTION 1. Grants right of way through the public lands, 200 feet wide, with privilege of taking materials for construction; earth, stone, timber, &c.

SEC. 2. Grants every alternate section of land, 12 sections wide, the whole length of road and branches. In case the lands there are occupied, an equivalent quantity elsewhere, not over 15 miles from the road. The road to be commenced simultaneously at both ends. The lands to be sold only as the work progresses. This grant does not include the reserve canal lands.

SEC. 3. United States land reserved sections not to be sold for less than double the minimum price of the public lands.

SEC. 4. The road to remain a public highway for the use of the United States Government, free from toll or other charges.

SEC. 5. If the road is not completed in ten years, the State of Illinois shall

pay to the United States the proceeds of any land sold, and the remaining land shall revert to the United States.

SEC. 6. The United States troops to be transported on the road at prices fixed by Congress.

SEC. 7. The same rights and equivalent lands herein conveyed and granted to the States of Alabama and Mississippi respectively, for prolonging the railroad through those States to Mobile. Approved September 30, 1850.

The magnificence of such a project as the building of this road, and the facility for its completion offered in the grant of the lands, could not fail to fall within the comprehensive speculation of certain New York gentlemen, and they at once proposed to the Governor of Illinois to take the donated lands and build the road by July, 1854, with a single track, in all respects like the Massachusetts Western Road. The State wisely granted a charter, of which the following is a synopsis:—

STATE OF ILLINOIS—AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAILROAD.

SECTION 1. Incorporates Robert Schuyler, George Griswold, Governeur Morris, Franklin Haven, David A. Neal, Robert Rantoul, Jonathan Sturges, Thomas W. Ludlow, John F. A. Sanford, Henry Grinnel, Wm. H. Aspinwall, Leroy M. Wiley, and Joseph W. Alsop, under the name of the "Illinois Central Railroad Company."

SEC. 2. Empowers the corporation to construct a railroad from the city of Cairo to the southern terminus of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, with a branch thence to Chicago, and another to Galena.

SEC. 3. Grants the right of way through the State lands, two hundred feet in width, together with the power to take stone and other materials for construction.

SEC. 4. The capital of the company to be $1,000,000, with privilege of increasing it. The capital to be divided into shares of $100 each.

SEC. 5. Invests the powers of the company in a board of twelve Directors.

SEC. 6. Appoints the twelve persons named in section 1 first board of Directors.

SEC. 7. The President and Directors empowered to execute all powers herein granted, in relation to the road.

SEC. 8. Empowers the company to make by-laws, rules, and regulations.

SEC. 9. Inflicts a penalty for obstructing the operation of the road.

SEC. 10. Relates to the mode of crossing of highways and water-courses.

SEC. 11. Relates to the connection with other railroads, and appoints Commissioners for settling disputes that may arise.

SEC. 12. Every servant of the company to wear a badge upon his cap.

SEC. 13. Requires each locomotive to have a bell or steam-whistle.

SEC. 14. Provides for filing a map of the road and of the lands taken for its use, in the office of the Secretary of State.

SEC. 15. Grants to the company the lands and privileges received from Congress by the State, under the Act of September 20, 1850; also, the right of way, lands, grading, and all materials and personal property obtained by the State heretofore for the said road.

On the organization of the company, and its formal acceptance of this act of incorporation, and after the payment of 20 per cent of its capital into the hands of the Treasurer of the company, and after the deposit of $300,000 of Illinois State bonds, or $200,000 in specie, or $200,000 in United States 6 per cent stocks, with the Treasurer of the State, to be by him retained in pledge until 50 miles of the road are completed, the Governor, on behalf of the State, to deliver to the company a deed of all the State property belonging to the said road and of all the property granted by the United States in aid of it.

The company at the same time to execute a deed of trust to Morris Ketchum, John Moore, and Samuel D. Lockwood, conveying to them all the property con-

tained in the said deed, and in addition thereto, the railroad to be built, and all the property belonging to it to secure—1. The construction of this road, according to the provisions of this act.

2. The faithful application of the lands according to this act and the act of Congress.

3. The indemnification of the State against any claim of the United States Government.

4. The State lien hereby created; provided, that if 50 miles of road are not built within two years, the funds deposited with the State Treasurer shall become forfeited to the State.

The company on its organization shall take possession of all the State property in the road, and shall proceed to construct it, nowhere departing more than seventeen miles from a straight line, between Cairo and the southern termination of the canal.

The main road to be put in operation within four years, and the branches within six years, and to be equal in all respects to the Massachusetts Western Railway.

The trustees shall hold one-fourth of the lands conveyed, applicable to the exigencies of the company, and to the interest on loans, no portion of this land to be sold until work is actually commenced on the road; and to no greater amount than the actual expenditures on the same.

The company may issue its bonds, bearing not more than 7 per cent interest, payable semi-annually, and redeemable at the pleasure of the company, before 1875; the payment of the bonds to be secured by the deed of trust.

SEC. 16. On the completion of 50 miles of road, the trustees may proceed to sell the lands, giving complete titles to buyers; all the proceeds to be applied to the bonds.

SEC. 17. The trustees not to sell lands to a greater amount than the actual expenditure on the road at the time.

SEC. 18. In consideration of these grants, the company to pay semi-annually 5 per cent of the gross income of the road to the State; the first payment in four years from date of trust.

SEC. 19. Survey of lands to be at cost of company, and roads to be free for the use of the United States.

SEC. 20. In case of the death of any of the trustees, the Governor and the company to fill the vacancies alternately.

SEC. 21. The company shall permit side tracks to intersect the road in cities.

SEC. 22. The lands held by the company not to be taxed until sold, and other property exempt for six years, and the tax then not to exceed three-fourths of 1 per cent. This tax and the 5 per cent of income not to exceed 7 per cent of the gross income of the company.

SEC. 23. All the grants to cease unless accepted within 60 days, and unless work is began before January, 1852.

SEC. 24. State to have a prior lien for all penalties, taxes, &c.

SEC. 25. Admits occupants of land granted to have pre-emptive right of purchase at $2 50 per acre.

SEC. 26. Confers the rights enumerated upon any other company, in case those enumerated in section 1 do not accept.

SEC. 27. This act declared public.

Signed, February 10, 1851.

On the 22d of March, 1851, the company, through its President, Robert Schuyler, Esq., accepted the act. On the same day the Treasurer of the company, in accordance with its provisions, deposited with the State Treasurer $200,000 in specie. On the 24th, the Governor executed this deed of "all the lands granted by the Government of the United States to the State of Illinois; also the lot of ground obtained by the State of Illinois within the city of Cairo for a depôt; also all the right of way, grading, embank-

ments, excavations, survey, work, materials, profiles, plates, and papers in anywise appertaining to said railroad and branches." On the same day, March 24, the company executed a deed of trust to Morris Ketchum, John Moore, and Samuel D. Lockwood, of all the above property to secure the objects mentioned in the act above quoted.

Congress having donated six sections, of 640 acres each, on each side of the road, it follows that the grant is 3,840 acres per mile. The final location of the road determined its length at 670 miles, consequently the aggregate grant is 2,572,800 acres. For that land patents have been issued from the Land-Office to the company, and under the trust these lands have been appropriated, and classed as follows, to secure construction bonds:—

400,000	acres,	inferior farm lands,	at $6	$2,406,000
1,200,000	"	good "	at $10	12,000,000
300,000	"	superior "	at $15	4,500,000
100,000	"	town sites, coal beds, &c.	at $25	2,500,000
2,000,000	"	to secure construction bonds		$21,400,000
250,000	"	in aid of interest fund, at $10		2,500,000
322,000	"	contingent fund	$10	3,220,000
2,572,000	"	average present value		$27,120,000

The amount of bonds to be issued not to be over $17,000,000, and the works erected by their expenditure are additional security for their payment. The interest is secured by the interest fund; thus, for twenty-four years the interest on $17,000,000 of bonds will amount to $28,560,000. The earnings of the Michigan Central Railroad, one-third the length of this great Illinois work, are $1,100,000. Under the supposition that this road yields no more, the amount will be $26,400,000. The interest fund will then be:—

Income of road	$26,400,000
250,000 acres of land, at $10 per acre	2,500,000
Capital stock	2,000,000
Total interest fund	$30,900,000

This low estimate is sufficient to show how unquestionable is the investment. The revenues of the Illinois Road will be at least triple those of the Michigan work, the stock of which sells at 116.

On the completion of these papers the company issued its bonds, of which $5,000,000 were negotiated in London and 70,000 tons of iron were purchased at a low price, one-half cash and one-half bonds. This iron has since advanced in value equal to one million of dollars. The 50 miles of road, the completion of which dates the right of the company to sell lands, will be completed in January, 1853, and the whole road is being put under contract.

In connection with the value of the lands held by the road, we may state that the total quantity of unsold land belonging to the government in Illinois was, as appears by the land table above, at the close of the last fiscal year, 10,243,157 acres. The government had sold 15,832,157 acres, and had received $20,491,177 cash, which was an average of $1 30 per acre. Of the above 10,243,157 unsold acres, 1,608,876 acres, on the line of the Central Railroad, had been under proclamation of sale an average of 15 years, and had found no buyers at the minimum price of the government, viz.: $1 25. Out of that quantity, 10,243,157 acres, the government granted 2,572,000 acres to the Central Railroad, and there remains to

it 7,672,157 acres, including one-half of that which had been so long upon the market. At the land sales this fall, those lands were eagerly taken up at $3 a $7 per acre—the average was $5, and it will be borne in mind that the price would have been much higher but for an agreement among settlers not to bid on each other, and also for their combination against speculators. Those lands that so long were neglected by the buyers, were situated, as per Land-Office reports, as follows:—In Kaskaskia District, 23,681 acres, over 30 years on the market; Shawneetown, 401,873 acres, over 30 years; Vandalia, 344,672 acres, over 25 years; in Danville, 372,702 acres, over 20 years; and in Dixon, 465,948 acres, over 10 years. All these lands are within five miles of the great Central Road, and one-half of them now form part of its property. The government land is, as we have said, selling at $5. The government would have been glad to get $2,000,000 for the whole, but it is through the influence of the road getting $4,000,000 for half, in the ratio of $8,000,000 for the whole.

No State has suffered more through mismanagement, in times gone by, than this State, which is emphatically the garden of the West—perhaps of the continent. Its position being south of Michigan and Wisconsin, insures to it a better and softer climate, of which the farmer feels practically the benefit, in shortening by a month the season for foddering cattle, and in the security of the corn crop from those frosts which, borne on the winds that sweep the Lakes, so often "kill out" the harvests of the Northern States. The broad and rich prairie lands afford advantages which the settlers in the wooded districts of other States do not appreciate, and which indeed are not brought out fully without the operation of internal works of improvement, which supply all that nature has withheld. It is seldom that any spot of land combines all the gifts of Providence. It is there that she has spread as a lawn the richest lands, charged with more fuel and water than almost any other section. Her streams flow gently through the rich alluvium, and Sir Charles Lyell states:—

"There is more good bituminous coal in Illinois than in England, and it is far more easily mined and laid out ready for transit than there."

There is an absence of timber, which has been considered by immigrants a drawback. Experience has, however, shown the contrary.

Those who have settled the timbered lands of Ohio and Pennsylvania can testify to the weary life-times of labor required to clear those tracts of stumps, and to wrench from the frowning forest the breadth of a good farm for cultivation. In Illinois the matter is different. As an instance:—In the month of April, 1844, a Massachusetts farmer, finding the buz of spindles increase faster than the hum of bees, and the crops that tumbled from railroad cars far more abundant than those in the barns of the section, started for Ogle County, Illinois, and entered upon 700 acres, 590 acres of which was a broad prairie, on which the tall grass waved in uninterrupted billows. As is usual, he immediately, with four yoke of oxen and a breaking plow, turned over the sods, and dropped the corn between them, without further labor. Thirty acres so treated gave him 1,200 bushels of corn in September, when 280 acres was ready for wheat. This gave little more labor. Twenty-six bushels, weighing 66 lbs. per bushel, to the acre. After this wheat was sown the process of fencing in commenced, and within this year 500 acres were fenced in, and 6,000 bushels of wheat, (prime wheat,) and 1,200 bushels of corn, were in the barn! Such is Illinois.

From this it will be observed that timber is the great nuisance upon fresh land, beyond what is wanted for posts, rails, and buildings. Now, all the head waters of the Mississippi and the Missouri command limitless timber lands. From the Falls of St. Anthony alone, more timber can be delivered than would supply an empire. That timber rafted to Cairo will supply, over the great Central Road, which runs north 117 miles, then forks and traverses the whole State in two lines, in a convenient form, all the wants of the farmers far cheaper than they could cut it themselves, without leaving a stump in their way. The same railroad which brings their timber carries away their produce.

One of the most extensive and intelligent farmers of Illinois, who is also a commission merchant at Toledo, has a farm of 4,000 acres in the interior of Illinois, stocked with 1,500 head of cattle, 2,000 sheep, and 2,500 hogs. He has been accustomed to haul wheat to Springfield, carrying back pine lumber, salt, &c., a distance of 50 miles. His wood he hauled 100 miles, to Terre Haute and Covington, on the Ohio River. The railroad now sweeps by his farm, carrying to him his supplies, and pouring his rich produce into the bosom of Chicago. The produce of that farm alone will give the Central Road a freight of $3,000 per annum.

It may be necessary here to describe the connection of this great work with the sea-board. It will be remarked that its southern terminus is Cairo, situated at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, and following the sinuosities of that stream, 1,012 miles from New Orleans. The Mobile and Ohio Railroad, however, connects Cairo with Mobile, 470 miles, or about the length of the Erie Railroad of New York. In the United States law, above quoted, grants of land were made in aid of this work, which is all under contract, and will be completed next year. This places Cairo within 600 miles of New Orleans, about half the river distance. The River Illinois drains a large section of its produce, which reaches St. Louis in about 600 arrivals per annum. That produce is transhipped, and seeks New Orleans by steamboat for a market. The Illinois Railroad, by its two immense branches, drains the most fertile and largest portion of the whole State, and concentrating the produce at Cairo, dispatches it over the railroad to a quicker and safer market. From the terminus of the northern branch at Chicago, two great railroads run easterly. These are the Michigan Central and the Michigan Southern Roads. In our number for February, 1850, we, in treating upon the debts of Michigan, described the process by which those two roads came into the hands of private companies. Mr. George Griswold, of New York, and Mr. J. W. Brooks, of Detroit, are the leading proprietors of the great Central Road. Under his charter, quoted in an article for February, 1850, the company completed its line, 227 miles, from Detroit to Michigan City, on the Indiana line. The company then petitioned the Legislature for a law to extend its road from Michigan City, through Indiana, to the Illinois line, 40 miles. This was not granted, and the company formed an arrangement with the New Albany and Salem Railroad, possessed of an old Indiana charter, by which they extended the road. This right was disputed by the great Michigan Southern Road, but the company have abandoned its ground of complaint, and the Michigan Central Road will connect on the Illinois line with the Illinois Central Road. This line will then be prolonged as follows:—

	Miles.	Time, hours.
Mobile to Cairo	470	20
Cairo to Michigan City	357	13
Michigan City to Detroit	227	11
Detroit, through Canada West, to Niagara	223	10
Niagara to Albany	300	10
Albany to New York, by Hudson River Railroad	144	4
Mobile to New York	1,721	77

This whole line is in process of construction, and will, within a very short time, be completed. New Orleans will connect by a northerly route, making the distance a little more than to Mobile. This Illinois Central Road is the great link which connects the northern routes with the southern, and must carry the through business of all the roads. It is, no doubt, the case, but that the Central Michigan Road, connecting also with Boston, may be the preferable one for transportation.

The influence of the Central Railroad, in addition to that of the great canal, the Springfield and Alton Railroad, the Galena and Chicago Railroad, and the other improvements in Illinois under the management of private companies, upon the welfare of the State, is hardly to be calculated. Each and all of these works not only cause the occupation of lands, thus bringing them under the operation of the tax law, increasing its proceeds applicable to the discharge of the debts, but, by opening markets, raises the value of all the products, and therefore lightens the tax to all the inhabitants. That which was an onerous burden upon 40,000 agricultural families, occupying land secluded from markets, became a light matter to 200,000 families, whose fertile lands are open to markets in which they compete successfully with the producers of less favored regions, and the day of discredit has passed. More particularly, that the new constitution, passed in 1847 by a vote of 59,887 for, and 15,859 against—majority in favor 44,028, or nearly two-thirds—that the State shall never contract debts to exceed in the aggregate $50,000, unless the law authorizing the debt shall provide for or tax to discharge it, and shall be submitted to the people before going into operation.

Art. II.—SUGAR: AND THE SUGAR TRADE.

SUGAR is the sweet constituent of vegetable and animal products. It may be distinguished into two principal species. The first, which occurs in the sugar-cane, the beet-root, and the maple, crystallizes in oblique four-sided prisms, terminated by two-sided summits; it has a sweetening power which may be represented by 100; and, in circumpolarization it bends the luminous rays to the right. The second occurs ready formed in ripe grapes and other fruits; it is also produced by treating starch with diastase or sulphuric acid. This species forms cauliflower concretions, but not true crystals; it has a sweetening power which may be represented by 60, and in circumpolarization it bends the rays to the left. Besides these two principal kinds of sugar, some others are distinguished by chemists; as the sugar of milk, of manna, of certain mushrooms, of liquorice-root, and that obtained from saw-dust and glue by the action of sulphuric acid; but they have no importance in a manufacturing point of view.

Sugar, extracted either from the cane, the beet, or the maple, is identical in its properties and composition, when refined to the same pitch of purity; only that of the beet seems to surpass the other two in cohesive force, since larger and firmer crystals of it are obtained from a clarified solution of equal density. It contains 5.3 per cent of combined water, which can be separated only by uniting it with oxyde of lead, into what has been called a saccharate; made by mixing sirup with finely ground litharge, and evaporating the mixture to dryness upon a steam-bath. When sugar is exposed to a heat of 400° F., it melts into a brown pasty mass, but still retains its water of composition. Sugar thus fused is no longer capable of crystallization, and is called caramel by the French. It is used for coloring liqueurs. Indeed, sugar is so susceptible of change by heat, that if a colorless solution of it be exposed for some time to the temperature of boiling water, it becomes brown and partially uncrystallizable. Acids exercise such an injurious influence upon sugar, that after remaining in contact with it for a little while, though they be rendered thoroughly neutral, a great part of the sugar will refuse to crystallize. Thus, if three parts of oxalic or tartaric acid be added to sugar in solution, no crystals of sugar can be obtained by evaporation, even though the acids be neutralized by chalk or carbonate of lime. By boiling cane sugar with dilute sulphuric acid, it is changed into starch sugar. Manufacturers of sugar should be, therefore, particularly watchful against every acidulous taint or impregnation. Nitric acid converts sugar into oxalic and malic acids. Alkaline matter is likewise most detrimental to the grain of sugar; as is always evinced by the large quantity of molasses formed, when an excess of temper lime has been used in clarifying the juice of the cane or the beet. When one piece of lump sugar is rubbed against another in the dark, a phosphorous light is emitted.

Sugar is soluble in all proportions in water; but it takes four parts of spirits of wine, of spec. grav. 0.830, and eighty of absolute alcohol, to dissolve it, both being at a boiling temperature. As the alcohol cools, it deposits the sugar in small crystals. Caramelized and uncrystallizable sugar dissolves readily in alcohol. Pure sugar is unchangeable in the air, even when dissolved in a good deal of water, if the solution be kept covered and in the dark; but with a very small addition of gluten, the solution soons begin to ferment, whereby the sugar is decomposed into alcohol and carbonic acid, and ultimately into acetic acid.

Sugar forms chemical compounds with the salifiable bases. It dissolves readily in caustic potash ley, whereby it loses its sweet taste, and affords on evaporation a mass which is insoluble in alcohol. When the ley is neutralized by sulphuric acid, the sugar recovers its sweet taste, and may be separated from the sulphate of potash by alcohol, but it will no longer crystallize.

That sirup possesses the property of dissolving the alkaline earths, lime, magnesia, strontites, barytes, was demonstrated long ago by Mr. Ramsay of Glasgow, by experiments published in Nicholson's Journal, volume xviii. page 9, for September, 1807. He found that sirup is capable of dissolving half as much lime as it contains of sugar; and as much strontites as sugar. Magnesia dissolved in much smaller quantity, and barytes, seemed to decompose the sugar entirely. These results have been since confirmed by Professor Daniell. Mr. Ramsay characterized sugar treated with lime as weak, from its sweetening power being impaired; from its solution he obtained, after some time, a deposite of calcarious carbonate. M. Pelouze has

lately shown, that the carbonic acid in this case is derived from the atmosphere, and is not formed at the expense of the elements of the sugar, as Mr. Daniell had asserted.

Sugar forms with oxyde of lead two combinations; the one soluble, and the other insoluble. Oxyde of lead digested in sirup dissolves to a certain amount, forms a yellowish liquor, which possesses an alkaline reaction, and leaves after evaporation an uncrystallizable, viscid, deliquescent mass. If sirup be boiled with oxyde of lead in excess, if the solution be filtered boiling hot, and if the vial be corked in which it is received, white bulky flocks will fall to its bottom in the course of 24 hours. This compound is best dried *in vacuo*. It is in both cases light, tasteless, and insoluble in cold and boiling water: it fires like German tinder, (Amadou,) when touched at one point with an ignited body, and burns away, leaving small globules of lead. It dissolves in acids, and is also a neutral acetate of lead, which forms with the oxyde a subsalt, and sets the sugar free. Carbonic acid gas passed through water, in which the above saccharate is diffused, decomposes it with precipitation of carbonate of lead. It consists of 58.26 parts of oxyde of lead, and 41.74 sugar, in 100 parts. From the powerful action exercised upon sugar by acids and oxyde of lead, we may see the fallacy and danger of using these chemical reagents in sugar refining. Sugar possesses the remarkable property of dissolving the oxyde, as well as the subacetate of copper, (verdigris,) and of counteracting their poisonous operation. Orfila found that a dose of verdigris, which would kill a dog in an hour or two, might be swallowed with impunity, provided it was mixed with a considerable quantity of sugar. When a solution of sugar is boiled with the acetate of copper, it causes an abundant precipitate of protoxyde of copper; when boiled with the nitrates of mercury and silver, or the chloride of gold, it reduces the respective bases o the metallic state.

The following Table shows the quantities of Sugar contained in Sirups of the numerical specific gravities.* It was the result of experiments carefully made.

Experimental specific gravity of solution at 60 d. F.	Sugar in 100, by weight.	Experimental specific gravity of solution at 60 d. F.	Sugar in 100, by weight.
1.3260	66.666	1.1045	25.000
1.2310	50.000	1.0905	21.740
1.1777	40.000	1.0820	20.000
1.4400	33.333	1.0685	16.666
1.1840	31.250	1.0500	12.500
1.1250	29.412	1.0395	10.000
1.1110	26.316		

If the decimal part of the number denoting the specific gravity of sirup be multiplied by 26, the product will denote very nearly the quantity of sugar per gallon in pounds weight, at the given specific gravity.†

Sugar has been analysed by several chemists; the following Table exhibits some of their results:—

	Gay Lussac and Thenard.	Berzelius.	Prout.	Ure.	
Oxygen.....	56.63	49.856	53.35	50.33	in 100
Carbon.....	42.47	43.265	39.99	43.38	"
Hydrogen.....	6.90	6.875	6.66	6.29	"

* The author, in minutes of evidence of Molasses Committee of the House of Commons, 1831, p. 142.

† This rule was annexed to an extensive table, representing the quantities of sugar per gallon corresponding to the specific gravities of the sirup, constructed by the author for the Excise, in subserviency to the Beet-root Bill.

Of the sugar-cane, and the extraction of sugar from it. Humboldt, after the most elaborate historical and botanical researches in the new world, has arrived at the conclusion that before America was discovered by the Spaniards, the inhabitants of that continent and the adjacent islands were entirely unacquainted with the sugar canes, with any of our corn plants, and with rice. The progressive diffusion of the cane has been thus traced out by the partisans of its oriental origin. From the interior of Asia it was transplanted first into Cyprus, and thence into Sicily, or possibly by the Saracens directly into the latter island, in which a large quantity of sugar was manufactured in the year 1148. Lafitau relates the donation made by William the Second, king of Sicily, to the convent of St Benoit, of a mill for crushing sugar canes, along with all its privileges, workmen, and dependencies: which remarkable gift bears the date of 1166. According to this author, the sugar cane must have been imported into Europe at the period of the Crusades. The monk Albertus Aquensis, in the description which he has given of the processes employed at Acre and Tripoli to extract sugar, says, that in the Holy Land, the Christian soldiers being short of provisions, had recourse to sugar canes, which they chewed for subsistence. Towards the year 1420, Don Henry, regent of Portugal, caused the sugar-cane to be imported into Madeira from Sicily. This plant succeeded perfectly in Madeira and the Canaries; and until the discovery of America these islands supplied Europe with the greater portion of the sugar which it consumed.

The cane is said by some to have passed from the Canaries into the Brazils; but by others, from the coast of Angola in Africa, where the Portuguese had a sugar colony. It was transported in 1506, from the Brazils and the Canaries, into Hispaniola or Hayti, where several crushing-mills were constructed in a short time. It would appear, moreover, from the statement of Peter Martyr, in the third book of his first Decade, written during the second expedition of Christopher Columbus, which happened between 1493 and 1495, that even at this date the cultivation of the sugar cane was widely spread in St. Domingo. It may therefore be supposed to have been introduced here by Columbus himself, at his first voyage, along with other productions of Spain and the Canaries, and that its cultivation had come into considerable activity at the period of his second expedition. Towards the middle of the 17th century, the sugar cane was imported into Barbadoes from Brazil, then into the other English West Indian possessions, into the Spanish Islands, on the coast of America, into Mexico, Peru, Chili, and, last of all, into the French, Dutch, and Danish colonies.

The sugar cane, *Arundo sacchifera*, is a plant of the graminiferous family, which varies in hight from 8 to 10, or even to 20 feet. Its diameter is about an inch and a half; its stem is dense, brittle, and of a green hue, which verges to yellow at the approach of maturity. It is divided by prominent annular joints of a whitish-yellow color, the plane of which is perpendicular to the axis of the stem. These joints are placed about 3 inches apart; and send forth leaves, which fall off with the ripening of the plant. The leaves are 3 or 4 feet long, flat, straight, pointed, from 1 to 2 inches in breadth, of a sea-green tint, striated in their length, alternate, embracing the stem by their base. They are marked along their edges with almost imperceptible teeth. In the 11th or 12th month of their growth the canes push forth at their top a sprout 7 or 8 feet in hight, nearly half an inch in diameter, smooth, and without joints, to which the name *arrow*

is given. This is terminated by an ample panicle, about 2 feet long, divided into several knotty ramifications, composed of very numerous flowers, of a white color, apetalous. and furnished with 3 stamens, the anthers of which are a little oblong. The roots of the sugar cane are jointed and nearly cylindrical; in diameter they are about one twelfth of an inch; in their utmost length, 1 foot, presenting over their surface a few short radicles.

The stem of the cane in its ripe state is heavy, very smooth, brittle, of a yellowish-violet, or whitish color, according to the variety. It is filled with a fibrous, spongy, dirty-white pith, which contains very abundant sweet juice. This juice is elaborated separately in each internodary portion, the functions of which are in this respect independent of the portions above and below. The cane may be propagated by seeds or buds with equal facility; but it is usually done by cuttings or joints of proper lengths, from 15 to 20 inches, in proportion to the nearness of the joints, which are generally taken from the tops of the canes, just below the leaves.

There are several varieties of the sugar-cane plant. The first, and longest known, is the creole, or common sugar cane, which was originally introduced at Madeira. It grows freely in every region within the tropics, on a moist soil, even at an elevation of 3000 feet above the level of the sea. In Mexico, among the mountains of Caudina-Mascar, it is cultivated to a height of more than 5000 feet. The quantity and quality of sugar which it yields, is proportional to the heat of the place where it grows, provided it be not too moist and marshy.

The second variety of this plant is the Otaheitan cane. It was introduced into the West Indies about the end of the 18th century. This variety, stronger, taller, with longer spaces between the joints, quicker in its growth, and much more productive in sugar, succeeds perfectly well in lands which seem too much impoverished to grow the ordinary cane. It sends forth shoots at temperatures which chill the growth and development of the creole plant. Its maturation does not take more than a year, and is accomplished sometimes in nine months. From the strength of its stem, and the woodiness of its fibers it better resists the storms. It displays a better inflorescence, weighs a third more, affords a sixth more juice, and a fourth more sugar, than the common variety. Its main advantage, however, is to yield four crops in the same time that the creole cane yields only three. Its juice contains less feculency and mucilage, whence its sugar is more easily crystallized, and of a fairer color.

Besides these two varieties, another kind is described by Humboldt and Bonpland, under the name of the *violet* sugar cane, for its haum and leaves are of this color. It was transported from Batavia in 1782. It flowers a month sooner than the rest, that is, in August, but it yields less solid sugar, and more liquid, both of which have a violet tint.

In saying that the cane may be propagated by seeds as well as buds, we must remark that in all the colonies of America, the plant flowers, indeed, but it then sends forth a shoot, (*arrow*,) that is, its stem elongates, and the seed-vessel proves abortive. For this reason, the bud-joints must there be used for its propagation. It grows to seed, however, in India. This circumstance occurs with some other plants, which, when propagated by their roots, cease to yield fertile seeds; such as the banana, the bread-fruit, the lily, and the tulip.

In the proper season for planting, the ground is marked out by a line into rows three or four feet asunder, in which rows the canes are planted

about two feet apart. The series of rows is divided into pieces of land 60 or 70 feet broad, leaving spaces of about 20 feet, for the convenience of passage, and for the admission of sun and air between the stems. Canes are usually planted in trenches, about 6 or 8 inches deep, made with the hand-hoe, the raised soil being heaped to one side, for covering-in the young cane; into the holes a negro drops the number of cuttings intended to be inserted, the digging being performed by other negroes. The earth is then drawn about the hillocks with the hoe. This labor has been, however, in many places better and more cheaply performed by the plough; a deep furrow being made, into which the cuttings are regularly planted, and the mold then properly turned in. If the ground is to be afterwards kept clear by the horse-hoe, the rows of canes should be 5 feet asunder, and the hillocks 2½ feet distant, with only one cane left in one hillock. After some shoots appear, the sooner the horse-hoe is used, the more will the plants thrive, by keeping the weeds under, and stirring up the soil. Plant-canes of the first growth have been known to yield, on the brick-mold of Jamaica, in very fine seasons, 2½ tons of sugar per acre. The proper season for planting the cane slips containing the buds, namely, the top part of the cane stripped of its leaves and the two or three upper joints, is in the interval between August and the beginning of November. Favored by the autumnal weather, the young plants become luxuriant enough to shade the ground before the dry season sets in; thereby keeping the roots cool and moderately moist. By this arrangement the creole canes are ripe for the mill in the beginning of the second year, so as to enable the manager to finish his crop early in June. There is no greater error in the colonist than planting canes at an improper season of the year, whereby his whole system of operations becomes disturbed, and, in a certain degree, abortive.

The withering and fall of a leaf afford a great criterion of the maturity of the cane-joint to which it belonged; so that the eight last leafless joints of two canes, which are cut the same day, have exactly the same age and the same ripeness, though one of the canes be 15 and the other only 10 months old. These, however, cut towards the end of the dry season, before the rains begin to fall, produce better sugar than those cut in the rainy season, as they are then somewhat diluted with watery juice, and require more evaporation to form sugar. It may be reckoned a fair average product, when one pound of sugar is obtained from one gallon (English) of juice.

Rattoons (a word corrupted from *rejettons*) are the sprouts or suckers that spring from the roots or stoles of the canes that have been previously cut for sugar. They are commonly ripe in 12 months; but canes of the first growth are called plant-canes, being the direct produce of the original cuttings or germs placed in the ground, and require a longer period to bring them to maturity, The first yearly return from the roots that are cut over, are called first rattoons; the second year's growth, second rattoons; and so on, according to their age. Instead of stocking up his rattoons, holing, and planting the land anew, the planter suffers the stoles to continue in the ground, and contents himself, as the cane-fields become thin and impoverished, with supplying the vacant places with fresh plants. By these means, and the aid of manure, the produce of sugar per acre, if not apparently equal to that from plant-canes, gives perhaps in the long run as great returns to the owner, considering the relative proportion of the labor and expense attending the different systems. The common yielding

on proper land, such as the red soil of Trelawney, in Jamaica, is 7 hogsheads, of 16 cwts. each, to 10 acres of rattoons cut annually: and such a plantation lasts from 6 to 10 years.

When the planted canes are ripe, they are cut close above the ground, by an oblique section, into lengths of 3 or 4 feet, and transported in bundles to the mill-house. If the roots be then cut off, a few inches below the surface of the soil, and covered up with fine mould, they will push forth more prolific offsets or rattoons, than when left projecting in the common way.*

The manufacture of sugar is that train of operations by which the juice is extracted from the canes, and brought to a granulated state. In the West India sugar mills employed for crushing the canes, a negro applies the canes in a regular layer or sheet to the interval between two rollers, which seize and compress them violently as they pass between them. The ends of the canes are then turned, either by another negro on the opposite side to the feeder, or by a framework of wood called a *dumb returner*, so that they may pass back again between two other rollers placed closer together. Channels are made to receive the liquor expressed from the canes, and conduct it to the vessels in which it is to undergo the succeeding operations. Improved sugar mills have been lately brought into use.

Cane-juice as expressed by the mill, is an opaque slightly viscid fluid, of a dull grey, olive, or olive-green color, and of a sweet balmy taste. The juice is so exceedingly fermentable that in the climate of the West Indies it would often run into the acetous fermentation in twenty minutes after leaving the mill, if the process of clarifying were not immediately commenced.

The processes followed in the West Indies for separating the sugar from the juice are as follows. The juice is conducted by channels from the mill to large flat-bottomed *clarifiers*, which contain from three hundred to a thousand gallons each. When the clarifier is filled with juice, a little slaked lime is added to it; and when the liquor in the clarifier becomes hot by a fire underneath, the solid portions of the cane-juice coagulate, and are thrown up in the form of scum. The clarified juice, which is bright, clear, and of a yellow wine-color, is transferred to the largest of a series of evaporating coppers, or pans, three or more in number, in which it is reduced in bulk by boiling; it is transferred from one pan to another, and heated until the sugar is brought to the state of a soft mass of crystals, imbedded in molasses, a thick, viscid, and uncrystallizable fluid. The soft concrete sugar is removed from the coolers into a range of casks, in which the molasses gradually drains from the crystalline portion, percolating through spongy plantain-stalks placed in a hole at the bottom of each cask, which act as so many drains to convey the liquid to a large cistern beneath. With sugar of average quality three or four weeks is sufficient for this purpose. The liquid portion constitutes molasses, which is employed to make rum. The crystallized portion is packed in hogsheads for shipment, as *Raw*, *Brown*, or *Muscovado Sugar;* and in this state it is commonly exported from our West Indian colonies. The sugar loses usually about 12 per cent in weight by the drainage of the remaining molasses from it while on shipboard.

Refining.—The refining of sugar is mainly a bleaching process, conducted on a large scale in the United States. There are two varieties produced

* Ure's Dictionary of Arts, &c., &c.

by this bleaching, viz. *clayed* and *loaf* sugar. For clayed sugar, the sugar is removed from the coolers into conical earthen moulds called *formes*, each of which has a small hole at the apex. These holes being stopped up the formes are placed, apex downwards, in other earthern vessels. The sirup, after being stirred round, is left for from fifteen to twenty hours to crystallize. The plugs are then withdrawn, to let out the uncrystallized sirup; and, the base of the crystallized loaf being removed, the forme is filled up with pulverized white sugar. This is well pressed down, and then a quantity of clay, mixed with water is placed upon the sugar, the formes being put into fresh empty pots. The moisture from the clay, filtering through the sugar, carries with it a portion of the colouring matter, which is more soluble than the crystals themselves. By a repetition of this process the sugar attains nearly a white color, and is then dried and crushed for sale.

But *loaf sugar* is the kind most usually produced by the refining processes. The brown sugar is dissolved with hot water, and then filtered through canvas bags, from which it exudes as a clear, transparent though reddish sirup. The removal of this red tinge is effected by filtering the sirup through a mass of powdered charcoal; and we have then a perfectly transparent and colorless liquid. In the evaporation or concentration of the clarified sirup, which forms the next part of the refining process, the boiling is effected (under the admirable system introduced by Mr. Howard) in a vacuum, at a temperature of about 140° Fahr. The sugar-pan is a large copper vessel, with arrangements for extracting the air, admitting the sirup, admitting steam pipes, and draining off the sugar when concentrated. In using the pan a quantity of sirup is admitted; and an air-pump is set to work, to extract all the air from the pan, in order that the contents may boil at a low temperature. The evaporation proceeds; and, when completed, the evaporated sirup flows out of the pan through a pipe into an open vessel beneath, called the *granulating vessel*, around which steam circulates, and within which the sirup is brought to a partially crystallized state. From the granulators the sirup or sugar is transferred into moulds of a conical form, which were formerly made of coarse pottery, but are now usually of iron; in these molds the sugar crystallizes and whitens, the remaining uncrystallized sirup flowing out at an opening at the bottom of of the moulds. This sirup is reboiled with raw sugar, so as to yield an inferior quality of sugar; and when all the crystallizable matter has been extracted from it, the remainder is sold as treacle. The loaves of sugar, after a few finishing processes, are ready for sale.

The improvements introduced into the processes of sugar-refining allow loaf sugar to be now sold at a price so little exceeding that of raw sugar, that the manufacture has of late vastly increased.

Sugar-Candy is a kind of crystallized sugar made in China and India. The crystals are formed around small strings or twigs, from which they are afterwards broken off. When heated to 365° Fahr., sugar melts into a viscid colorless liquid which when cooled suddenly, becomes *barley-sugar*.

The manufacture of *Beet Root Sugar* is not in a flourishing state, as it cannot well compete commercially with that from the sugar-cane. There is a project at present on foot for establishing the beet-sugar manufacture in Ireland. It is proposed to establish a company with a capital of half a million sterling; and to buy Irish beet root with a view of extracting sugar from it by processes which have recently been patented, and the patents for which are to be held by the company. The projectors start upon the

basis that the climate, soil, and labor-supply of Ireland are highly favorable to the culture; and that the patent processes are calculated to perform the extraction of sugar well and cheaply. It remains to be shown how far these anticipations are capable of being borne out; if commercially advantageous at all, Ireland must unquestionably be benefited by it. The company's calculations give 400 tons of sugar and 100 tons of molasses for 6,000 tons of beet-root and shadow forth a flattering rate of prospective dividend. So do the calculations of the Irish Peat Company; and we can only at present express a *wish* that the anticipations may be realized. (April 1851.)

It has just been announced that there are now 303 beet-sugar manufactories in France; and that the produce of French beet-sugar in 1850 was 74,628,607 kilogrammes—about 160,917,900 lbs.

Sugar-Trade.—Before the discovery of America, sugar was a costly luxury used only on rare occasions. About 1459 Margaret Paston, writing to her husband, who was a gentleman and land-owner in Norfolk, begs that he will "vouchsafe" to buy her a pound of sugar. The consumption has gradually but steadily increased throughout the world.

The sugar trade of the world has, in the last ten or fifteen years, undergone a great change, on account of the changed commercial policies of our own and other governments, the improved prosperity of the people of England and Europe, as well as of the United States, leading to larger consumption, on the one hand, while the development of the culture of the cane in Louisiana, and of beet sugar in Europe, has tended to enhance the general supply, which again has been checked by the course of the British and French Governments in respect to their sugar colonies. The great reduction of the sugar duties of Great Britain has had the effect of increasing the consumption of raw sugar in the British islands 50 per cent. The duty on foreign brown sugar in England, which was 66s. per cwt. prior to July, 1846, has been but 14s. since July, 1851, and in 1854 the duties on raw and refined will be equalized. While the British demand for sugar was thus enhanced, the colonies produced less, and the extra demand from England fell on the markets of the world. In the same period, although the aggregate consumption of sugar on the continent increased, the demand for cane sugar was checked by the extended production of beet-root sugar, which has reached 150,000 tons per annum. Of this, in the German Customs Union, the increase has been from 15,000 to 62,000 tons, forming now one-half of the whole consumption of sugar in the Zollverein. In France, a great increase in the production of beet sugar took place under the protective policy of the government, which discriminated in its favor against the cane sugar of the colonies, until the growth became large, and then it reversed its policy, discriminating in favor of cane sugar. Nevertheless, the course of the Provisional Government in 1848 towards its colonies diminished the receipt of colonial cane sugar in France from 120,000 to 60,000 tons.

It would seem to be the case, however, that notwithstanding the diminished supply of cane sugar from the British and French West Indies, the growth of beet sugar in Europe has so far supplanted its use, as to more than meet the aggregate increased demand for consumption in both England and Europe, and to throw larger supplies of Cuban sugar upon the United States markets, to compete with the swelling production from Louisiana cane. The import of brown sugar into the United States has been, according to official returns, as follows:—

POUNDS OF IMPORTED RAW BROWN SUGAR INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Cuba.	Brazil.	West Indies.	East Indies.	Total.
1837.....	40,965,998	3,287,401	49,166,140	26,996,532	120,416,071
1838.....	55,624,855	7,885,067	66,093,202	9,597,781	139,200,705
1839.....	70,286,903	9,848,738	86,681,537	15,783,149	182,540,327
1840.....	48,127,706	5.413,316	45,576,480	8,838,531	107,155,033
1841.....	90,384,397	9,070,626	60,838,901	5,659,259	165,963,083
1842..... ...	67,586,332	6,822,217	68,179,055	12,328,234	155,414,946
1843.....	31,628,319	1,915,115	31,475,613	4,515,284	69,434,331
1844.....	114,362,368	2,709,099	54,763,060	7,932,964	179,857,491
1845.....	51,699,108	6,258,288	46,571,976	6,582,720	111,967,404
1846.....	61,624,973	4,926,304	50,057,329	9,656,444	126,731,661
1847.....	169,274,024	6,896,447	45,366,660	8,642,895	226,683,261
1848.....	174,979,362	6,003,609	54,035,761	13,182.395	248,201,117
1849.....	179,754,020	9,516,004	56,710,138	7,835,323	253,815,495
1850.....	127,767,543	7,033,366	49,530,181	13,320,729	197,651,819
1851.....	275,827,497	14,557,699	62,883,757	10,768,908	364,537,861

Under the term of West Indies is included Porto Rico and some of the South American countries, other than Brazil. It will at once be seen that the supply from Cuba, from being one-third only of the whole import in 1837, has gradually risen until it is become two-thirds of the whole importation of raw sugar into the Union. The supplies from Brazil fluctuate more in proportion to the European demand and prices than do those from Cuba. The figures, however, embrace only the brown sugar. If we add the aggregate of white sugar in each year, and also the crops of Louisiana, we arrive at the supply of raw sugar in the United States for each fiscal year. The figures for the year 1843 are for nine months only. It was in that year that the date of the the fiscal year was changed.

IMPORTS OF RAW SUGAR AND LOUISIANA CROPS.

	White.	Brown.	Supply. New Orleans.	Raw sugar.
1837.....	15,723,748	120,416,071	70,000,000	306,139,819
1838.....	14,678,238	139,200,905	68,000,000	218,879,243
1839.....	12,690,946	182,640,327	170,000,000	265,231,273
1840.....	12,934,552	107,956,033	115,000,000	235,890,585
1841.....	18,233,579	165,963,083	87,000,000	271,197,662
1842.....	16,464,290	155,414,946	90,000,000	261,879,236
1843.....	1,098,025	69,534,331	140,000,000	211,632,356
1844.....	4,731,516	179,867,491	100,000,000	284,589,007
1845.....	1,162,674	111,967,404	100,000,000	313,119,978
1846.....	1,043,836	126,731,661	187,000,000	314,775,497
1847.....	9,196,106	226,683,261	160,000,000	386,879,361
1848.....	6,007,008	248,201,117	240,000,000	494,208,125
1849.....	5,103,741	253,815,486	220,000,000	473,919,226
1850.....	19,997,312	197,651,819	247,923,000	465,572,231
1851.....	4,786,437	363,637,861	211,307,000	579,627,298

Such has been the annually increased supply of raw sugar. Since 1842, the trade has undergone a change in refining. Thus the tariff of 1833 charged a duty of 2½ cents upon raw sugars, but in order to encourage refining it allowed a drawback of 5 cents per pound on refined sugar exported. It is ascertained that 100 pounds, one-third white Havana and two-thirds brown, will yield 51¾ pounds refined. Hence, refunding 5 cents of the refined sugar was giving back a little more than the duty on the raw sugar. That is to say, 100 pounds raw sugar, $2 60 duty, and produced 51¾ pounds refined, on which the drawback was $2 68¾; and further, as under the

terms of the compromise act, the duty on the raw sugar underwent biennial reductions, while the drawback was unaltered, the drawback became a direct bounty, and the business was increased as follows:—

	Supply.	Exports.	U. S. consump.
1837	206,139,819	45,047,008	161,092,811
1838	218,879,243	17,254,524	201,624,719
1839	265,231,273	23,969,100	241,262,173
1840	235,890,585	41,125,648	194,764,937
1841	271,197,662	39,094,265	232,103,397
1842	261,879,236	18,604,814	243,274,422
1843	211,632,356	3,576,607	209,056,749
1844	284,589,007	6,324,954	278,264,053
1845	313,119,928	15,391,058	298,728,920
1846	314,775,497	27,715,733	287,959,764
1847	385,879,361	9,223,547	376,655,814
1848	494,208,125	19,570,352	474,637,773
1849	478,919,226	21,462,893	453,456,333
1850	465,572,231	20,097,870	445,474,361
1851	579,627,298	11,220,723	568,406,575

In these figures we have taken no account of maple sugar, because, although that article is a valuable product in the new States, it does not conflict with the cane sugars where the latter are introduced through the operation of the public works, the returns, of which all show an increasing market for the cane sugar, as the districts through which they run become more settled. The prominent fact in the above table is, that while Louisiana aud Cuba afford equal supplies for the consumption of the Union, the former has far outrun Cuba, notwithstanding that the latter has become so much more dependent upon the United States for a market.

IMPORT AND EXPORT OF REFINED SUGAR.

	Foreign.	Domestic.	Total exports.	Imports.	Excess exp.
1837	72,786	1,844,167	1,916,953	9,899	1,907,055
1838	.....	2,610,649	2,610,649	4,556	2,606,093
1839	136,191	4,781,723	4,918,915	57,751	4,861,164
1840	74,674	10,741,648	10,816,822	1,682	10,814,640
1841	3,033	13,435,084	13,438,117	68,333	13,369,784
1842	1,320,181	3,430,346	4,750,527	1,985,319	2,765,208
1843	157,700	598,884	756,584	699,090	57,594
1844	1,679,410	1,671,187	3,350,517	2,215,517	1,185,000
1845	1,840,909	1,997,692	3,838,901	2,044,862	1,794,039
1846	910,263	4,128,512	5,038,775	253,379	4,785,396
1847	185,878	1,539,415	1,725,293	1,089,477	638,816
1848	439,220	3,370,773	3,817,993	2,121,628	1,696,365
1849	100	1,956,895	1,956,995	400,015	2,356,880
1850	286,078	2,786,022	3,072,100	796,217	2,275,883
1851	1,107,295	2,689,541	3,796,836	12,077,726	.....

The great increase in the import of refined sugar in 1851 was from Belgium and Holland, stimulated by the low price of raw sugars there. Under the operation of the falling duty upon raw sugar, and the unchanged rate of drawback, the export of refined sugars rose from 2,000,000 pounds in 1837, to nearly 14,000,000 pounds in 1841. With the close of that fiscal year, the drawback was reduced from 5 cents to 3 cents, and after January, 1842, to 2 cents. The effect was the instant cessation of the trade, making a difference of near 27,000,000 pounds in the quantity of brown sugar re-exported in the shape of refined sugar. This was a very important item, and its effect upon the market was by no means properly estimated. We

may now take a table of the whole export of sugar from the United States, that is, raw sugar of foreign and domestic origin, and of refined sugar equal to raw, at the rate of two pounds raw for one of refined, as follows:—

TOTAL EXPORT OF RAW SUGAR, FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC, AND OF REFINED EQUAL TO RAW.

	Raw.		Domestic refined equal	Total
	Foreign.	Domestic.	to raw.	exports.
1837	41,052,073	306,602	3,688,334	45,047,008
1838	11,624,324	408,802	5,221,398	17,254,524
1839	13,018,451	387,203	9,563,446	23,969,100
1840	18,872,844	769,903	21,483,396	41,125,648
1841	11,811,233	312,864	26,970,168	39,094,265
1842	11,577,589	166,533	6,860,692	18,604,814
1843	1,729,276	58,563	787,768	2,575,607
1844	2,795,622	187,118	3,342,214	6,324,954
1845	11,199,089	195,985	3,995,984	15,391,058
1846	19,347,414	109,295	8,259,024	27,715,733
1847	5,756,260	388,457	3,078,830	9,223,547
1848	12,677,790	135,006	6,757,556	19,570,352
1849	17,149,894	399,209	3,913,790	21,462,893
1850	13,866,987	458,839	5,772,044	20,097,870
1851	5,279,813	561,825	5,379,082	11,220,722

This table gives the whole annual export demand for raw sugar.

The sugar trade of Great Britain in 1849 and 1850 exhibited the following results. The importation of sugar amounted to the quantities here stated:

	1849.	1850.
From West Indies.....cwts.	2,839,912	2,584,162
From Mauritius	897,814	1,003,312
From East Indies	1,474,474	1,346,081
Foreign	1,725,149	1,352,476
Refined	304,392	355,387
Molasses	1,311,435	1,249,796
Total	8,553,176	7,891,214

The total quantities of all kinds of sugar and molasses re-exported in the same two years, together with the exports of sugar refined in England, were

	1849.	1850.
Re-exports.....cwts.	761,286	466,219
British refined	223,273	209,235
Total	984,559	675,454

The gross amount of duty received on the imported sugar was 4,139,999*l.* in 1849, and 1850, 4,130,819*l.*

The duties on the importation of sugar into England have varied very considerably. Between the years 1661 and 1815 the duty was gradually raised from 1s. 6d. to 30s. per cwt. on British plantation sugar. From 1815 to 1844 it varied from 24s. to 30s. East India sugar paid a higher duty than West India until 1836, when the two were assimilated. Foreign sugar paid a duty of 60s. to 63s. per cwt. until the recent legislative changes. In 1844 a change was made, whereby sugar from certain foreign countries, under certain defined circumstances, might be admitted at 34s. instead of 63s. duty. In 1845 another act fixed the duty on sugar, from either the East Indies or West Indies, at sums varying from 14s. to 21s., according

to the quality. By an act passed in 1846, there was to be a gradual reduction of duties from 1846 to 1851, at the expiration of which period the duty on foreign sugar was to be the same as that on East or West India sugar. By another act of the British parliament passed in 1848 this principle of gradual reduction is to extend until July, 1854, after which time sugars from all countries will be placed on the same footing. They will all pay at that time the following import duties per cwt.:

Refined sugar	13s. 4d.
White clayed	11 8
Brown clayed	10 0
Brown raw	10 0
Molasses	8 9

Since preparing the preceding pages on "Sugar and the Sugar Trade," the London *Morning Chronicle* comes to our hands with the following description of a patent method of sugar manufacture, which has been introduced into Cuba and other sugar producing countries. It increases the quantity of sugar produced besides improving its quality. Patents for the improvement have been secured, as we learn, in the United States.

The new processes are fourfold in their character, comprising, first, a new mode of obtaining the saccharine juice from the cane; secondly, a new mode of defecating and filtering the juice so obtained; thirdly, the boiling and concentrating of the juice; and fourthly, the crystallization and final curing of the sugar. The varied processes are to be seen at a model sugar-house, at the works of Mr. Bessemer, Baxter-house, Old St. Pancras Road, London. By the first improvement, in the construction of the cane-press, a difference in the yield of the cane is obtained, as compared with the old rolling mill, of about 20 per cent. In the new machine, the pressing tubes are reduced in length from 30 inches to 12, the first four of which are parallel, and 3 inches wide—the next four inches of their length being taper, and terminating with a width of but 1½ inch, the smaller contracted point extending as far as the exit end of the tube. By this change of form, the entire removal of the elasticity in the "magas" occupying the tubes is removed, and after the cane has been collapsed by the severe pressure, and its breadth at the same time gradually lessened, every fiber and cell is made to assume new relative positions—not one remains unruptured and an increased quantity of the juice is consequently expelled at the trough. In addition to this advantage, there is obviously a more equal distribution of power in each revolution of the machine; the deleterious chlorophyl or coloring matter of the outer portion of the cane is not expelled with the juice, as in the ordinary apparatus; the machine may be more easily fed, and weighs considerably less than rolling machines generally in use.

The juice, when expelled from the cane, is unavoidably mixed with numberless minute fragments of cellular tissue, albumen, and other extraneous matter, which, if not speedily removed, tend to produce the acidification of the liquid. At this stage comes in the second of the processes invented by Mr. Bessemer. The present mode of defecation and filtration consists in raising the temperature of the liquor to 15 degrees Fahrenheit, when a quantity of lime is thrown in for the purpose of neutralizing the free acid, and assisting in the coagulation of the albumen; the temperature is increased to 180 degrees Fahrenheit, when, after allowing time for settling, the scum is removed and the clear liquor drawn off into the "grand" copper, where it is subjected to boiling heat, when the feculent and other albuminous matters are kept constantly removed from its surface. The more completely these impurities are removed, the greater will be the brightness and value of the finished product. In the new process the juice passes through a wire strainer direct from the spout of the mill into the clarifiers, where it is raised to boiling heat by the application of steam, at which temperature it is kept for about three minutes, by which time the whole of its albuminous con-

stituents and feculent matter will have been coagulated and chemically separated, but will, of course, still remain mechanically mixed, and, in the form of light flock, pervade the entire bulk of the fluid. These substances are then effectually removed by a process similar to that employed in the manufacture of paper. A drum of about two feet in diameter and from four to five feet in length, is made to revolve slowly in a small semi-circular tray or vessel. This drum is covered with fine wire cloth, through which the water forces its way, leaving a muddy coating of extraneous matters on the other side, which coming in contact as it revolves with a fixed scraper, similar in principle to the "doctor" employed in calico printing, is made to fall off in a state something like dry mud into a receptacle prepared for it. The process is self-acting. It takes in its own supply of foul liquor from an elevated cistern, delivers the clear juice into the evaporating pan, and discharges the refuse as we have already stated.

Up to this stage, the advantages obtained must be evident to all who are acquainted with this interesting branch of manufacture. The liquor being received direct from the press, avoids the necessity of the use of liquor pumps; the clarifiers, not being used as subsiding vessels, are not required to be so large; the loss of juice in the removal of the scum and in the sediment is prevented; the use of the "mont-jus" is rendered unnecessary; the coagulation of the albuminous matter is more rapidly obtained; the evaporating process may follow immediately after the pressing of the canes; and finally, the self-cleansing filter performs its work much better than any continuous process of skimming, and renders unnecessary that watchful attendance which is now so imperatively necessary in order to obtain the required brightness and color of the sugar. The saving of manual labor by those improvements is self-evident.

On the various modes of boiling and concentrating the juice at present in use, whether by a series of semi-globular pans, the vacuum pans, Gadsden's pan, or the apparatus of Mr. Crossley or Mr. Schroder, it is not necessary now to speak; the principle in one and all of them being the same—that of evaporating the fluid from the saccharine matter. The inventor of the process now under consideration, contends that, in all the existing arrangements for the separation of the water from the sugar, boiling under any form, or the use of surfaces or pipes heated by steam, must be totally excluded if the formation of molasses is to be prevented. It is a well established fact that a thermometer placed in a solution heated by steam or the direct action of fire, furnishes no indication of the temperature to which the liquid is exposed, as a vast amount of latent heat is absorbed by fluids in their formation into steam. To the forgetfulness of this simple fact, are to be traced many of the fatal mistakes at present connected with the manufacture of sugar.

Thus, while the temperature of the sirup during ebullition in a vacuum-pan indicates as low perhaps as 180 degress Fahrenheit, the copper worm against which portions of the sugar are constantly brought in contact, is equal to and often above 220 degrees Fahrenheit: the consequence of which is the destruction of the color, and an injury to the crystallizing powers of the sugar. By an arrangement which Mr. Bessemer terms a hot air evaporator, the concentration of saccharine fluids may now, however, be affected without the slightest injury to color or quality, and in an increased quantity.

This apparatus consists of a tank of thin plate iron, of about 10 feet by 8 feet, and 2½ feet in depth, which has a false bottom, curved so as to form two parallel segments of a cylinder. Above these and coincident with them is a hollow drum of eighteen inches in diameter, mounted on an axis, and upon which is formed a broad spiral blade in the shape of a screw, or "creeper," the thread of which is about fifteen inches in depth, and the convolutions three-quarters of an inch apart; and between each of the blades or threads of the screw, holes are formed spirally from one end of the drum to the other. At one end of the hollow drum, air, supplied by a blowing fan, and heated to 150 degress by passing along a flue, is made to enter, which escapes through the holes in the drum in the radial direction, and sweeps like the hot breath of the simoon over the wet surfaces of the various revolving blades, absorbs the moisture thus exposed to its action, and

passes off in an invisible vapor. Upwards of six thousand square feet of evaporating surface is thus obtained in the small space of 10 feet by 8 feet. The screws make about eight revolutions per minute, and as they revolve, the more concentrated portions of the fluid are washed off as they descend into the fluid, and fresh portions are being constantly brought up on the surface of the screw, to be in like manner subjected to the hot-air blast. Finally, after three or four hours, the whole of the surplus liquor is carried off; the remaining fluid is sufficiently concentrated, and assumes a thick gelatinous appearance; and the screw, made to revolve in the opposite direction, expels the solution from the tank ready for the process of crystallization. By this process the sugar is not at any time exposed to a hotter surface than 140 degrees. No boiling, consequently, takes place, no slea is formed, and not one grain of crystallized sugar is converted into molasses. The entire cost of fuel for evaporation is saved, the waste heat of the chimney and waste steam of the engine being alone employed, and the apparatus costs less than the ordinary vapor pans; it can be worked with a small amount of wind or water power. Three hogsheads of sugar, it is stated, can be obtained where two only are now produced, whilst the quality will be superior in color and taste, and will be perfectly free from molasses.

The separation of the crystals from the mother liquor in which they are found, is effected in a most ingenious and efficient manner by the use of the air-pump. The transformation from the most repulsive and unwholesome-looking black sugar into a fine white sugar, is completed in one-seventh of a second by this process. The principle adopted is precisely that employed in "gassing" lace—an operation resorted to for the purpose of removing the minute filaments of cotton adhering to the surface of the fabric. In the case of the crystals of sugar, a thin flim of fluid matter is required to be removed from the surface of the crystal, and this is effected by bringing it into contact with water—a material which would as quickly dissolve the crystal itself, as the flame of the gas would destroy the delicate and fragile web of the bobbin net. How can the water be thus brought into contact with the sugar for such a short period, and in such a manner as only to remove the outer coating of molasses, and leave the crystal uninjured? The process is a very simple one. A table of nine feet in circumference is made to revolve eight times per minute, having a coating of sugar spread over it to the depth of half an inch, and which consequently moves over a space of 72 feet per minute. At one part of the revolution the table is made to pass under a pipe of two inches in diameter, from which a shower of water is falling, and as the pipe is but one-sixth of a foot in diameter, and the table passes it at the rate of 72 feet per minute, it follows that each portion which comes under the falling water will be retained only 1-432 of a minute in each revolution. This table being covered with a thin brass wire gauze, has placed immediately under it a vacuum chamber, into which the falling water, carrying with it the semi-fluid coating of molasses, is drawn as the table revolves, the crystallized sugar remains on the surface pure and white, and is delivered by a scraper into the hogshead placed for its reception.

Art. III.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XXXIII.

THE CITY OF NEW YORK.—PART IV.

CITY FINANCES.

THE expense of the government of the city, annually for the last half-century, appears in the following statement of the amount raised each year, for city purposes, from 1801 to 1850 :—

Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
1801.....	$75,000	1819	$250,140	1836.....	$1,085,130
1802.....	75,000	1820	270,361	1837.....	1,260,000
1803	75,000	1821	259,430	1838.....	1,300,000
1804	75,000	1822	302,106	1839.....	1,200,000
1805	127,947	1823	351,814	1840.....	1,100,000
1806	127,815	1824	353,328	1841	1,265,000
1807	119,155	1825	336,864	1842.....	1,100,000
1808	138,985	1826	583,759	1843.....	990,000
1809	139,027	1827	437,692	1844.....	1,298,922
1810	129,727	1828	485,752	1845.....	1,339,487
1811	176,978	1829	507,107	1846	1,754,323
1812	174,920	1830	509,178	1847.....	1,746,361
1813	174,727	1831	562,104	1848.	1,992,150
1814	214,225	1832	665,886	1849.....	2,302,564
1815	197,913	1833	971,866	1850.....	2,578,325
1816	180,654	1834	835,605	1851.....	2,924,493
1817	216,720	1835	965,603	1852.....	3,278,335
1818	255,741				

TAXATION BY DECADES.

Periods.	Amount.	Periods.	Amount.
1801–10	$1,082,655	1831–40.....	$9,945,694
1811–20	2,112,879	1841–50.....	16,385,132
1821–30	4,127,080		
Total tax, fifty years.....			$33,652,890

COMPARATIVE INCREASE OF TAXATION AND POPULATION.

Periods.	In. pop. per cent.	In. tax. per cent.	Periods.	In. pop. per cent.	In. tax. per cent.
1801–10.....	59	..	1831–40	54	141
1811–20.....	28	95	1841–50	65	65
1821–30.....	64	95			

RATE OF TAX PER HEAD.

Years.	Rate.	Years.	Rate.
1800.....	$1 24	1830.....	$2 51
1805	1 69	1835..... ...	3 57
1810	1 35	1840.....	3 52
1814	2 32	1845.....	3 61
1820	2 18	1850.....	5 00
1825	2 03		

From these calculations it is seen, that the increase of taxation has, since 1800, far outrun the increase of population; the benefits of government to each individual costing four times as much in 1850 as 1800, and twice as much as in 1830; but we suppose no one contends that the personal advantages conferred by the municipal administration upon the citizen, have multiplied in anything like a corresponding ratio. Nor has property, rapidly as it has augmented, kept a much more even pace with the cost of protec-

tion, the rate per hundred of 1850, being treble that of the year 1800, and more than double that of either 1830 or even of 1840.

The amount raised in like manner in Boston, was, at different periods, as follows:—

Year.	Amount.	Per head.	Year.	Amount.	Per head.
1800	$83,428 75	$3 43	1840.....	$546,742 80	$5 85
1820	165,228 80	3 81	1845.....	811,338 09	7 09

The amount raised by tax in Cincinnati, in 1850, was $438,345 84, equal to $3 84 per head.

Although the rate of taxation per head is much larger in Boston than in New York, the burden upon property is less, the wealth of the former city being much greater in proportion to its inhabitants than that of New York.

It is useless to make any comparison of the per centage of tax in the different cities, as the valuation of property varies so widely that the comparative burden imposed could not be deduced from the rates.

DEBT.

The debt of the city, according to the message of the Mayor, of the present year, is as follows:—

Permanent debt, redeemable from sinking fund.....	$14,578,908
Temporary debt, redeemble from taxation.....	710,000
Total	$15,288,908

On the first of January, 1845, the permanent debt was $12,881,750 42; temporary, $1,147,914 80; total, $14,029,665 22.

The debt of Boston, in 1850, was about.....	$7,000,000 00
Of Baltimore, in 1850.....	5,454,389 17
Of New Orleans, 1852.....	6,542,226 00
Of St. Louis, 1851.....	1,536,096 10
Of Cincinnati, 1851.....	1,840,000 00

WEALTH.

The following is a statement of the valuation of property in the city of New York, from 1800 to 1851, distinguishing each class of estate from 1825:—

Years.	Real estate.	Personal estate.	Total.
1800	.....	.....	$24,486,370
1805	.....	.....	25,645,867
1806	.....	.....	26,529,630
1807	.....	.....	24,959,955
1808	.....	.....	25,118,720
1809	.....	.....	24,782,267
1810	.....	.....	26,436,370
1811	.....	.. ..	26,045,780
1812	.....	.....	26,243,040
1813	.....	.....	27,640,230
1814	.....	.....	82,901,497
1815	.....	.....	81,636,043
1816	.....	.....	82,074,201
1817	.....	.....	78,895,725
1818	.....	.....	80,245,091
1819	.....	.....	70,113,061
1820	.....	.....	69,530,758
1821	.....	.....	68,282,070
1822	.....	.....	71,269,144
1823	.....	.....	70,940,820
1824	.....	.....	83,075,976

Years.	Real estate.	Personal estate.	Total.
1825	$58,435,895	$42,734,151	101,160,046
1826	64,942,851	42,534,931	107,477,781
1827	72,617,770	39,594,156	112,211,926
1828	77,139,880	36,879,653	114,019,533
1829	76,531,890	35,984,136	112,516,026
1830	87,603,580	37,684,938	125,288,518
1831	97,221,870	42,058,344	139,280,214
1832	104,042,405	42,260,213	146,302,618
1833	114,129,561	52,365,626	166,495,187
1834	123,249,280	63,299,231	186,548,511
1835	143,782,452	74,981,278	218,723,703
1836	233,743,303	75,758,617	309,501,920
1837	196,450,109	67,297,241	263,747,350
1838	194,543,359	69,609,582	264,152,941
1839	196,778,434	70,010,796	266,789,230
1840	187,121,464	65,721,699	252,843,163
1841	186,347,246	65,430,456	251,777,702
1842	176,512,342	61,294,559	237,806,901
1843	164,950,515	63,046,576	227,997,091
1844	171,936,591	64,023,456	235,960,047
1845	177,160,790	62,777,528	239,938,318
1846	183,480,934	61,471,571	244,952,505
1847	187,314,386	59,837,917	247,152,306
1848	193,027,576	61,164,451	254,192,027
1849	197,761,919	58,455,174	256,217,093
1850	207,146,173	79,939,240	286,085,416
1851	227,013,856	93,094,502	320,108,358
1852	252,186,753	98,520,043	351,706,796

The property of each kind, in the several wards, in 1836, 1843, and 1852, was:—

	1836.		1843.		1852.	
Wards.	Real.	Personal.	Real.	Personal.	Real.	Personal.
1	$35,272,466	$28,759,936	$24,129,450	$26,817,180	$39,828,183	$40,071,503
2	10,140,380	2,490,866	13,206,750	1,709,345	15,999,725	2,947,672
3	15,357,477	7,658,500	11,428,226	5,621,371	16,656,300	9,769,472
4	10,207,250	2,337,625	7,475,000	2,222,587	8,407,420	1,571,567
5	3,214,601	5,405,960	8,904,800	2,364,122	10,738,400	2,490,550
6	10,091,945	4,188,105	6,763,900	975,100	8,104,850	1,303,250
7	12,284,590	4,506,000	10,620,478	3,656,000	11,757,490	2,746,575
8	13,808,600	2,272,650	10,905,500	2,871,632	12,939,960	1,706,573
9	10,725,855	1,638,900	9,247,900	1,430,625	11,795,800	1,727,643
10	7,536,288	862,590	6,062,900	546,450	6,851,300	1,106,250
11	18,755,484	1,393,900	3,987,025	87,400	6,897,200	539,831
12	14,830,072	2,987,550	5,586,938	750,550	3,888,896	518,100
13	4,437,250	548,350	4,066,800	275,785	4,699,900	552,505
14	7,884,250	2,336,429	6,648,386	2,102,928	8,133,500	2,335,927
15	16,194,200	7,801,007	14,006,350	9,482,057	19,245,250	15,826,945
16	24,201,595	519,869	12,626,763	542,670	11,375,139	1,608,225
17	.....	.....	9,283,349	1,590,774	13,186,850	2,436,900
18	.....	.....	.....	.....	33,886,010	8,194,800
19	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,878,380	255,400
20	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,916,200	210,750
Total	233,743,303	75,758,617	164,950,515	63,046,576	252,186,753	98,520,042

The proportionate increase of population and wealth in New York, in each consecutive period of ten years, since 1800, has been as here stated:—

Years.	In. population.	In. property.	In. pop. per ct.	In. wealth pr. ct.
1800–10	35,884	$1,950,000	59	8
1810–20	27,333	43,094,383	28½	163
1820–30	78,883	55,757,765	64	80
1830–40	110,121	127,554,645	54	102
1840–50	202,835	33,242,253	65	13
1800–50	455,056	261,599,046	752	1,068

By this, it appears that the period 1810–20, was that of greatest real prosperity, as during this time the increase of wealth bore a larger proportion to that of population than in any other of the periods named. The ability of the community to provide for itself whatever was desirable in the way of necessaries and comforts, was increased in this period, by above 130 per cent, while in the ten years previous it actually grew poorer by the loss of about 50 per cent, the excess of the increase of population over that of property. In the same manner, it is apparent, that *the period* 1840–50 *has been that of least prosperity, or rather of greatest real retrograde, of any one of the successive periods of ten years since* 1800. In this period, there has been an increase of 52 per cent in population above the increase of wealth, so that where there would have been a dollar in the division of property in 1840, there was in 1850 less than two-thirds of a dollar. It is evident that this is the true method of viewing our progress, as we can be said to prosper or go backward only according to the enlarged or diminished ability held by the aggregate population of the city, to supply the great aggregate of its wants. The criterion, however, is far from precise, on account of the irregularities of the valuation, which, under the best system, must come very far short of uniformity and accuracy. The additions to the population, both in 1800–10 and in 1840–50, may have been of as good *material* as the increase of any other period, as regards their productive ability. But this is only their capacity for *future* creation of wealth; while they did not bring a share corresponding with that before existing to each man to the general stock, they yet claimed a full share with the others in wages and other benefits of the existing property. The effect, of course, was in each case to diminish the general comfort, and to increase very sensibly, through the competition in labor and lessening of prices, and the increase of rent, &c., the inconveniences of the poorer classes of the population.

COMPARISON OF THE VALUATION OF NEW YORK AND BOSTON SINCE 1800.

Years.	New York.	Boston.
1800	$24,486,370	$15,095,700
1810	26,436,870	18,450,500
1820	69,530,753	38,289,200
1830	125,288,518	59,586,000
1840	252,843,163	94,581,600
1850	286,085,416	180,500,000

The valuation of several other cities was, at different periods, as follows:—

Baltimore, 1850	$80,287,960	Providence, R. I., 1845...	$28,516,000
Brooklyn, 1850.....	32,514,810	Chicago, 1850.....	7,220,249
" 1851.....	40,352,377	" 1851	8,562,717
Buffalo, 1850.....	16,801,466	Salem, Mass., 1845.....	10,084,000
New Orleans, 1851.....	74,315,865	Manchester, Eng., 1851 ..	5,346,830
Newport, R. I., 1850.....	4,720,450		

WEALTH PER HEAD.

The amount per head of wealth, in New York and Boston, has been, at the different periods named, as follows:—

Years.	New York.	Boston.
1800	$404 80½	$621 30
1810	274 31½	546 08
1820	562 06	884 31
1830	618 43½	970 58
1840.....	806 41	961 49
1850.....	554 99½	1,296 94

IN SEVERAL OTHER PLACES.

Baltimore, 1850	$474 63	Newport, R. I., 1850	$493 61
N. O., 1851, (on the popu'n of '50)	622 10	Chicago, 1850	240 97
Brooklyn, 1850	335 76	Salem, Mass., 1845	601 60
Buffalo, 1850	397 56	Manchester, Eng., 1851	17 62
Providence, R. I., 1845	898 06		

The valuation in Boston, undoubtedly, is nearer the full value of the property, than in any other of the cities named; but, still, there is no doubt, that the amount per head is larger in Boston than in any other city of the United States, unless it be equaled by some of the large manufacturing towns of New England. Boston is certainly, in this view, *the richest of all the large cities in the world.* But it should be remembered that it has not to sustain such a vast proportion of penniless emigrants as are perpetually crowding into New York, and is exempt from other causes that operate very efficiently to lessen the proportion of wealth to population in New York. Emigration, of course, in a large degree, is the means of increasing the valuation, by the rise which it occasions in rent, and consequently in property generally, and in the impulse it gives to business; but this does not compensate for the other effect of emigration, (as it is here,) of overcrowding all employments in the city, furnishing and replenishing perpetually a large unproductive class, and in swelling the ranks of that unthrifty multitude, who, whatever their labor may contribute to the general prosperity, are careless of their own interest, beyond the gratification of their immediate wants and desires.

Of the amount in 1850, of the valuation of Boston, $74,907,100 was personal property, which is as much, within five millions, as the personal property of New York in the same year. This indicates a far more comfortable state of things among the body of the population, the mechanics, laborers, &c., than exists here. The prosperity of these classes is always measurably evidenced by the proportion which personal estate bears to real, most of their savings being necessarily converted into this species of property. The division of personal estate, according to the valuation of 1850, upon the population of the same years in the two cities, would give to each individual in New York $155 06: in Boston $539 71. A similar calculation in reference to the different wards of New York, shows that there is the least degree of comfort in the 13th and 16th wards, the division of personal property in 1850, giving but $16 11 per head in the former, and $16 71 in the latter. In the 10th ward, a like division would afford $41 29 per head; in the 8th ward, $41 37 per head; in the 6th, $45 08, and in the 4th, $46 88. In the 15th ward, the division would give $643 21 to each individual; in the 14th, $144 30, and in the 18th, $128 11. The calculation cannot be extended at all to the first three wards, as their position, before explained, with reference to Commerce and population, puts them on a very different footing, in general matters, from the other wards. The same circumstances, of course, affect somewhat all the wards of the city, but in very uneven degrees. Taking the wards four to thirteen, sixteen, and seventeen, embracing about 385,000 inhabitants, or near four-fifths the whole population of the city, the division, on the basis of 1850, would give but about $43 of personal property per head, and but about $320 per head of both real and personal.

INDIVIDUAL ESTATES.

In 1850, two estates were assessed in New York for over $1,000,000, viz.:—Willian B. Astor's, $2,600,300, and Peter Lorillard's, $1,169,900. Exclusive of incorporated companies, seven estates were assessed on $500,000 and upwards. The other properties above $17,500 were—

Amounts.	No. of estates.	Amounts.	No. of estates.
$400,000 to $500,000	2	$60,000 to $70,000	109
300,000 to 400,000	24	50,000 to 60,000	195
200,000 to 300,000	58	40,000 to 50,000	271
100,000 to 200,000	222	30,000 to 40,000	445
90,000 to 100,000	43	20,000 to 30,000	957
80,000 to 90,000	64	17,500 to 20,000	773
70,000 to 80,000	99		

COMMERCE.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

The following table shows the amount of the imports into the port of New York, the exports, domestic and foreign, therefrom, (exclusive of specie,) and the amount of duties collected on the importations, in each year, from 1821 to 1851, inclusive:—

Years.	Imports from foreign countries.	Amount of duties on imports.	Domestic produce and manufactures exported.	Foreign merchandise exported.	Total exports.
1821	$36,020,012	$7,243,542	$8,102,022	$4,022,143	$12,124,645
1822	83,912,453	9,941,703	9,228,631	6,177,063	15,405,694
1823	30,601,455	9,022,435	11,526,632	9,563,064	21,089,696
1824	37,785,147	11,178,139	11,652,050	10,652,050	22,309,362
1825	50,024,973	15,752,100	19,257,749	14,774,530	34,032,279
1826	34,728,664	11,525,862	10,743,846	8,693,383	19,437,229
1827	41,441,832	18,217,695	13,301,222	11,312,813	24,614,035
1828	89,117,016	13,745,147	12,272,078	9,863,499	22,135,487
1829	84,972,493	18,052,676	10,509,481	7,100,119	17,609,600
1830	88,656,064	15,012,553	11,814,926	5,851,698	17,666,624
1831	57,291,727	20,096,136	15,053,571	11,089,148	26,142,719
1832	50,995,924	15,070,124	11,941,697	10,850,902	22,792,599
1833	56,527,976	13,039,181	13,941,689	10,782,014	24,723,903
1834	72,224,390	10,183,152	12,090,142	10,105,919	22,196,061
1835	89,304,108	14,468,116	20,373,343	8,662,412	29,035,755
1836	118,886,194	17,114,305	18,377,691	9,077,532	27,455,223
1837	63,374,558	9,487,598	13,601,110	9,933,500	23,534,610
1838	77,214,729	10,494,055	15,340,937	6,841,311	22,182,248
1839	97,078,687	13,970,332	24,673,936	11,988,787	36,662,228
1840	56,845,924	7,537,441	19,635,226	10,551,244	30,186,470
1841	75,268,015	10,993,899	22,840,315	7,891,204	30,731,519
1842	52,415,555	10,013,122	17,556,294	5,533,905	23,090,199
1843	50,036,667	11,300,407	17,835,738	5,604,588	23,440,326
1844	75,749,220	21,457,330	26,400,860	8,227,510	34,628,470
1845	68,932,207	17,667,858	.....	.....	34,800,348
1846	71,093,819	16,867,275	.....	.....	34,196,184
1847	95,288,597	17,342,462	43,021,382	2,616,572	45,637,954
1848	69,315,969	20,839,681	33,637,844	2,693,597	36,331,441
1849	86,611,902	19.811,334	33,166,339	3.553,885	36,720,224
1850	103,250,508	24,487,610	33,227,676	5,433,841	38,661,517
1851	130,633,030	31,757,199	47,496,978	6,098,498	53,595,376
1852	117,739,457	28,078,910	38,853,757	5,333,572	44,187,329

The following is a statement of the imports of New York compared with those of Boston, Charleston, and the United States, at different periods:—

Years.	New York.	Boston.	Charleston.	United States.
1769.....	£188,976	.....	£306,600	£1,336,119
1821.....	$36,020,012	.....	$3,007,113	$62,585,724
1825.....	50,024,978	$15,231,856	1,892,297	96,340,075
1830.....	38,656,064	8,348,623	1,054,619	70,876,920
1835.....	89,304,108	19,038,580	1,891,805	149,895,742
1840.....	56,845,924	14,122,308	1,058,870	107,141,519
1845.....	68,932,207	21,591,877	1,143,158	117,254,564
1850.....	103,250,503	.....	.....	178,136,318

The following table shows the exports of New York at different periods, compared to those of Boston, Charleston, and the United States:—

Years.	New York.	Boston.	Charleston.	United States.
1792.....	$2,535,790	.....	$2,423,250	$26,109,572
1795.....	10,301,182	.....	5,998,492	67,064,097
1800.....	18,978,123	.....	10,663,510	94,115,925
1805.....	28,482,943	.....	9,066,625	101,536,963
1810.....	17,242,330	.....	5,290,614	61,316,833
1816.....	13,946,598	.....	10,849,409	87,671,569
1820.....	11,769,511	.....	8,882,940	69,691,669
1825.....	34,032,279	$6,078,619	11,056,742	75,986,657
1830.....	17,666,624	5,180,178	7,627,031	73,849,508
1835.....	29,035,755	7,952,346	11,338,016	121,693,577
1840.....	30,186,470	8,405,294	10,036,769	132,085,946
1845.....	34,196,184	9,370,851	8,890,648	114,646,606
1850.....	38,661,517	.....	.....	151,893,720

The following table gives a statement of the duties collected at the port of New York, compared with the total collections of the United States, in various years between 1789 and the present:—

Years.	New York.	United States.	Years.	New York.	United States.
1789.....	$145,320	.....	1825.....	$15,752,100	$20,098,714
1792.....	1,238,903	$3,443,071	1830.....	15,012,553	21,922,391
1795.....	2,717,361	5,558,461	1835.....	14,468,116	19,391,311
1800.....	8,611,588	9,080,933	1840.....	7,537,441	13,499,502
1805.....	6,958,008	12,936,487	1845.....	17,867,858	27,528,113
1810.....	5,223,696	8,583,309	1850.....	24,487,610	39,668,686
1816.....	10,785,354	36,306,875	1851.....	31,757,199	49,017,597
1820.....	5,487,974	15,005,612	1852.....	28,678,910	47,320,316

The revenue collected at the principal ports of the United States in the year ending June 30, 1851, was as follows:—

New York.....	$31,757,199	Baltimore.....	$1,047,278
Boston.....	6,577,540	New Orleans.....	2,296,636
Philadelphia.....	3,667,838	Charleston, S. C.....	600,712

ARTICLES OF TRADE.

Dry goods form about one-half of the whole value of the imports into the city from foreign countries. Few people, not engaged in this branch of our trade, are aware of the great importance of this interest, as regards either the Commerce or the revenue of the nation.

The statement following shows the value of the dry goods, of the different kinds, entered for consumption and warehoused, compared with the whole importation of foreign merchandise for several years:—

	1848–9.	1849–50.	1850–1.	1851–2.
Manufactures of wool....	$9,199,578	$14,637,060	$17,067,031	$14,388,565
Manufactures of cotton...	10,783,807	10,660,857	11,671,500	9,982,547
Manufactures of silk.....	14,301,316	16,679,227	24,858,850	22,319,951
Manufactures of flax.....	4,245,513	7,084,663	8,058,731	6,346,299
Miscellaneous.....	4,144,525	2,320,828	3,957,635	4,183,740
Total imports dry goods..	$41,674,739	$51,382,635	$64,613,747	$57,221,062
Total imports merchandise	68,932,207	103,250,508	130,683,080	117,739,457
Proportion of dry goods to whole import.....	60.5 p. ct.	49.7 p. ct.	49.5 p. ct.	48.6 p. ct.

The following is a statement of several of the leading articles imported from foreign countries or arriving coastwise in 1851 :—

Articles.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
Cotton .....bales	930	456,637	457,567
Coal.....tons	57,896	.....	57,896
Coffee.....bags	495,012	62,331	557,343
Figs.....drums	191,537	77,350	268,887
Brandy.....half-pipes	13,970	381	14,351
Brandy..... ...quarter-casks and bbls.	33,340	560	33,900
Hemp.....bales	41,645	19,476	61,121
Hemp .....tons	1,289	112	1,401
Hides .....bales	772	326	1,098
Hides..... .....No.	1,132,154	203,628	1,335,782
Iron, bar and pig.....tons	101,616	4,907	106,523
Iron .....bundles	673,380	6,207	659,587
Lead ....pigs	310,458	176,538	486,996
Molasses.....hhds.	72,972	12,650	85,622
Molasses .....trcs.	4,402	1,247	5,649
Molasses.....bbls.	4,130	39,797	43,927
Raisins.....boxes	460,677	32,041	492,718
Raisins.....casks	24,243	1,035	25,278
Rice.....trcs.	.....	42,433	42,433
Salt.....bushels	2,269,590	10,180	2,279,770
Sugar..... .....hhds.	126,019	21,448	147,467
Sugar.....trcs.	1,666	58	1,724
Sugar ....bbls.	8,089	36,268	44,357
Sugar.....boxes	189,499	3,599	193,098
Sugar .....bags	155,076	13,733	168,809
Tobacco.....hhds.	252	14,827	15,079
Tobacco.....bales, &c.	27,222	428	27,650
Wines.....hhds. and half-pipes	17,279	401	17,680
Wines.....quarter casks	42,040	917	42,957
Wool.....bales	39,166	10,692	49,858

SPECIE AND BULLION.

The amount of specie and bullion and gold dust brought into New York, and sent out, were not included in the table of imports and exports before given. The imports and exports of specie and bullion for the last six years past, have been as follows :—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1847.....	$8,307,380	$905,841
1848.....	1,173,406	12,028,798
1849.....	2,813,380	4,739,903
1850.....	10,502,115	5,885,103
1851.....	10,390,501	26,622,731
1852.....	2,528,391	37,273,703

For the calendar year 1851, the import of gold and bullion from California was $43,671,432, and the export of gold and silver to all countries was $43,723,209.

Art. IV.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JAMSETJEE JEEJEEBHOY—A PARSEE MERCHANT.*

JAMSETJEE JEEJEEBHOY was born at Bombay in the year 1783. We have heard that his father was so poor that he followed the profession of a *bottly-wallah*, a bottle-fellow, buying and selling old bottles. However this may have been, Jamsetjee at the age of eighteen, entered into partnership with his father-in-law, Framjee Nusserwanjee, and in the following years made several successful voyages to China. Possessing those qualities most desirable in a merchant, integrity, judgment, and enterprise, he gradually ex-

* A late number of the *North American Review* gives a sketch of the life and good deeds of a remarkable East Indian, a native of the Parsee race and faith, a Merchant by calling entitled to rank with the highest, the most enlightened, the most Christian of that calling. His name has a right to fill the trump of fame, although it would require some skill in execution to sound it on that musical instrument—his name is Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy.

Those who complain of the old-fashioned slowness of the "North American," and whose charge is that it is apt to linger behind the times and pick up old and thread-bare topics, after the rest of mankind have let them drop, must admit that in this instance at least the Review has unearthed for American readers a topic of an interest as fresh as it is genuine, and of the highest order. A liberality, a munificence as lavish and at the same time as wise and well-directed as that of this great Indian Merchant, would be a wonder in Christian New York. To Christian New York it seems a miracle at Mahometan Bombay. For be it remarked, all this generosity is not a *post-mortem* affair. This good man and wise merchant (his character justifies, and his name must excuse, this circumlocution) is still living. He has parted from his treasure. He has "denied himself" that he might benefit others. The generosity of a last will, which gives what the dying man can no more use, is well, but it is not to be compared either in merit or in wisdom with the wise liberality which foregoes the present possession of a large amount of wealth, and *sees to the proper application of it.*

The *North American Review* has done a good service to the Mercantile Profession, in whose name we thank it. That able Review has, for a period of thirty-six years, done many another good service to American letters, American learning, American customs, fame, and character. It has become the fashion with some few who have the *will* to be witty, (following, we presume, the example of one who had something more, the lamented Poe,) to talk slightingly of the North American, in the tone of Lord Byron's sneer—

"My grandmother's review, the Quarterly."

Admitting a certain stiffness of style, and the absence of that picturesque variety of topics, and sprightliness of treatment, which make the English reviews so interesting, but which they owe in some measure to their political and partisan character, a character which the North American has always avoided, every candid person must admit the soundness and ability of the matter, and the elegance and correctness of style of this Veteran Quarterly. Let the American critic remember that our Review, the only American Quarterly which has ever been able to maintain its ground, has done battle for American letters for nearly forty years; that it is very little the junior of the oldest of the English Reviews of its class. We cannot account for the strange and sometimes ludicrous stiffness of style in which much of the North American is written; the timidity which cuts off the chances of even a "happy audacity," unless it be that the writers, who, we take it are nearly all Harvard men, have continually before their eyes the fear of their rhetoric professor, and of those mysterious cabalistic marks of criticism he used to place on the margin of their college themes. But for accuracy of style, for purity, for those qualities which belong to good English, *written on Addisonian principles*, we believe the North American would take the palm from the English reviews. And taking the last number for proof, we do not see how any one can complain of any lack of fresh as well as solid interest in its pages.

We repeat our thanks for the interesting sketch of the noble Indian Merchant, in the name of the mercantile community, for whom it is not, we hope, presumption in us to speak, and we copy it into the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, for the benefit of those whom it is calculated most directly to interest, and who form a circle of readers probably several times larger than the select parish for which our Veteran Quarterly ministers with much power and unction.

tended his dealings to other countries, and drew in a rich harvest of gains. His ships, built by the excellent Parsee shipwrights of Bombay, traded with all parts of the East, and now and then sailed even round the Cape. Year after year he prospered, and when he had been twenty years in business, he had acquired a large and still increasing fortune. He did not forget, in winning his fortune, how to spend it. The responsibilities and the duties which cannot be separated from wealth, but which Christianity itself is often powerless to enforce upon those who profess it, were a portion of his natural religion.

It is in the years 1822 and 1826 that the first public notice of his benefactions is to be met with. At both of these periods, he released the prisoners confined in the Bombay jail, for debt, under the authority of the Small Cause Court. On this the sum of three thousand rupees* was expended. "The cases of imprisonment of this sort are often of the greatest cruelty and hardship." At funerals and marriages, all classes of natives indulge in unbounded extravagance. A man will frequently expend on these occasions the prospective earnings of years, which usurious money-lenders stand ready to advance at extravagant rates of interest. Burke's description of a Hindu banian may with less exaggeration be applied to the Hindu usurer: —"He is a person a little lower, a little more penurious, a little more exacting, a little more cunning, a little more money-making, than a Jew." The poor debtor, pressed hard and cheated, often falls into a state of inextricable difficulty; his little possessions are seized by his creditor, and he himself is cast into jail and ruined. It affords an indication of the smallness of the sums for which individuals are often confined, that with this amount of three thousand rupees, Jamsetjee satisfied the claims of the creditors of above fifty debtors.

"For the next twenty years," says the account to which we have referred, "the flow of bounty from his coffers seems to have been almost uninterrupted. We have been able to trace the following items from various quarters, but we know that these have constituted but a small fraction of his gifts:—

Payments towards effecting the release of debtors.....rupees	3,000
Property made over in trust, the funds from which are devoted to the periodical performance in Bombay, and sundry places in Guzerat, of various Parsee rites and ceremonies.....	170,000
Cost of a building made over to the Parsee Punchayet for the celebration of certain public festivals among the Parsees in Bombay.....	50,000
Contributions in money, grain, and clothes, for the benefit of the sufferers by the great fire at Surat.....	35,000
Remittances made from time to time for distribution among poor Parsees at Surat and neighborhood.....	40,000
Subscription to the Pinjrapole in Bombay.....	65,000
Sums given at various times in effecting the amicable adjustment of disputes referred for arbitration.....	30,000
Sums given in aid of members of respectable native families in distress.....	40,000
Subscriptions to the building of Parsee cemeteries in various places.....	30,000
Sums expended for building and repairing various Parsee sacred buildings in Surat and the neighboring places.....	17,000
Cost of sundry wells and reservoirs in Bombay, Colaba, and between Poona and Ahmednugger.....	15,000
Amount given in trust to the Parsee Punchayet for the benefit of the poor blind at Nowsary.....	5,000
Subscription to the Pinjrapole at Patton in Guzerat.....	3,000

* The rupee may be estimated at the value of half a dollar.

Amount given during ten years to the Punchayet for distribution in charity	15,000
Cost of Parsee sacred buildings at Poona	50,000
Cost of Dhurmsalla (or house for travelers) at Khandalla	20,000
Contribution toward a fund for defraying the funeral expenses of poor Parsees at Gundavy	5,000
Total	608,000

It is not necessary to make any remark on this memorable list of benevolences. Meanwhile, the public acts of generosity of this noble merchant had attracted to him the regard and admiration, not only of the natives, but also of the European community of Western India. A report of his munificence was made to the home authorities of the East India Government, and at the unanimous recommendation of the Court of Directors, a patent of knighthood was conferred upon him by the queen. It was the first instance in which any title of honor had been conferred by the English Government upon a native of India, and no worthier opportunity has ever occurred for the granting of any such distinction. It was in May, 1842, that the ceremony of presentation took place at Parell, the residence of the Governor of Bombay. The circumstance was one not only highly gratifying to Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy himself, but to the native community in general, who are accustomed to attach an extravagant value to any such marks of honor. It was consequently determined by some of the most influential natives to offer to him a testimonial at once of their respect for his character, and of their gratification at the distinction he had obtained. A sum of fifteen thousand rupees was accordingly raised by subscription, which it was determined to invest, not as we should have done, in a silver service, a bust, or a statue, but in a fund, the interest of which should be devoted to procuring translations of popular and important works from other languages into Guzerattee, the language chiefly in use among the Parsees. The proceedings which accompanied the presentation of this testimonial to Sir Jamsetjee were so remarkable that we shall copy a portion of a full account which appeared in the Bombay *Times* newspaper, of June 18th, 1843, and is reprinted in the "Correspondence relating to Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy's Parsee Benevolent Institution."

PRINCELY MUNIFICENCE OF SIR JAMSETJEE JEEJEEBHOY.

On the forenoon of Wednesday last, a very numerous party of Parsee and European gentlemen assembled at the mansion of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy to witness the presentation of an address to him by his kinsmen and friends, accompanied by a testimonial of the value of rupees 15,000.

The following is an extract from the address which was read in English:

We shall not expatiate upon your princely donation of a hundred and fifty thousand rupees towards the formation of a hospital for all classes of the community—your munificent offer to government to contribute fifty thousand rupees towards the construction of a causeway or velard at Mahim, to connect Bombay and Salsette—the construction of a spacious building at Khandalla, on the high-road to Deccan, for the accommodation of travelers—nor upon the prompt and liberal relief which, from your own purse, and through your personal exertions, has been afforded to your fellow creatures in distress, especially on the two occasions in which the city of Surat was visited with extensive and calamitous fires; while in your private charities, your hand has ever been ready to alleviate the sufferings of the widow and orphan, the unfortunate and the destitute, there

are few public institutions at this Presidency which have not shared largely in your bounty. Neither is it necessary to dwell upon the benefits which the trade of this port has derived from the enterprise and magnitude of your commercial operations; nor to point out the great extent to which you have availed yourself of the means of doing good, derived from your mercantile knowledge and experience, joined to a conciliatory disposition and the probity of your character, as well as from your position in the native community, by arranging differences and settling disputes, so as to save the parties from the evils of a tedious and expensive litigation. But we would allude to these circumstances merely to show the grounds of the high estimation in which you are universally held, and of the feelings which have induced us to express our gratification at the distinction which has been conferred upon you—a gratification which derives no small addition from the consideration of your being one of the principal members of our community.

To commemorate this auspicious event, we request your permission to apply a sum of money which we have subscribed, in forming a fund, to be designated "Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy's Translation Fund," and to be vested in trustees for the purpose of being appropriated in defraying the expenses of translating into the Goozerattee language such books from the European and Asiatic languages, whether ancient or modern, as may be approved of by the Committee, to be by them published and distributed gratis, or at a low price, among the Parsee community, in furtherance of the education of our people, of which you have ever been a warm friend and zealous patron.

We subscribe ourselves, with sentiments of esteem and respect, sir, your faithful and obliged servants,

NOWROJEE JAMSETJEE WADIA,
FRAMJEE COWASJEE BANNAJEE,
DADABHOY PESTONJEE WADIA,
CURSETJEE COWASJEE,
CURSETJEE ARDASEERJEE, and 932 others.

After the reading of this address, another was presented in the name of the native inhabitants of Poona and its vicinage; and then Sir Jamsetjee replied in a manner perfectly unparalleled in the history of such occasions.

MY DEAR FRIENDS:—I feel deeply grateful to you for the address which you have just presented to me; so distinguished a mark of the esteem of my fellow-countrymen is an honor of which I, and those who are most dear to me, may justly be proud.

To have been selected by my sovereign as the native through whom she was graciously pleased to extend the order of knighthood to her Indian subjects, was, and ever must be, a source of deep personal gratification to myself. But to receive the congratulations of my fellow-countrymen in a manner at once so kind and flattering, to have this auspicious event commemorated by the creation of a charity, to be connected with my name, and in the objects of which I so cordially concur, is a source of inward pride and satisfaction, which, rising higher than the gratification of mere worldly titles, will live with me to my dying day.

Your too kind and favorable mention of my acts of charity has much affected me. The only merit I have a right to claim for them is, that they proceeded from a pure and heartfelt desire, out of the abundance of which Providence has blessed me, to ameliorate the condition of my fellow creatures. With this no unworthy motive was mixed; I sought neither public honors nor private applause, and conscious of a singleness of purpose, I have long since had my reward. When, therefore, Her Majesty's most gracious intentions were communicated to me, I felt deeply gratified that I had unconsciously been the means of eliciting so signal a mark of the good feelings of England towards the people of India, and it is in this light that I prefer to consider the distinguished honor Her Majesty has conferred upon me, and that also which I have received at your hands this day.

Nothing could please me more than the purposes to which you propose to devote

the funds that have been subscribed. I shall ever wish my name to be connected with every endeavor to diffuse knowledge among our people; and the surest way to incite them to elevate and improve themselves, to fit them to appreciate the blessings of the government under which they live, and to deserve those honors which have now for the first time been extended to India, is to spread far and wide among them, gratuitously or in a cheap form, translations into our language of the most approved authors. Connected with this subject is a scheme that I have long contemplated for relieving the distresses of the Parsee poor, of Bombay, Surat, and its neighborhood. You know full well the state of misery in which many of our people are living, and the hopeless ignorance in which their children are permitted to grow up. My object is to create a fund, the interest of which shall be applied towards relieving the indigent of our people, and the education of their children; and I now propose to invest the sum of 300,000 rupees in the Public Securities, and place it at the disposal of trustees, who, with the interest, shall carry out the object I have mentioned; and this trust, I hope, you will take under your care.

And now, my dear friends, let me once again thank you for your kindness. There is nothing I value so highly as the good opinion of my countrymen, nor anything I more anxiously desire than their welfare and happiness.

The result of this very striking and happy reply, which must have overcome Sir Jamsetjee's audience with the deepest surprise and astonishment, and which resembles more some delightful Arabian Nights Story, than an actual reality, belonging to our selfish and unromantic commercial times, has appeared in the establishment of a Parsee Benevolent Institution, which we found last year to be in active operation, established upon a wide and sound basis, and productive of very great good. In many of its details, it would be well worthy of imitation, even in our enlightened and liberal community.

It will have been noticed that, in the address presented to Sir Jamsetjee, reference is made to his gift of a hundred and fifty thousand rupees for the establishment of a hospital for all classes. It was in January, 1843, that the corner-stone of this hospital was laid. It was finished shortly after. It is a beautiful Gothic building, containing accommodations for 300 patients, and besides being one of the most useful institutions of the city of Bombay, is now one of its chief ornaments. Sir Jamsetjee expended at least 170,000 rupees in its erection, and the government have liberally contributed to its support. It is well worthy of a detailed description; but the good works of this man have been so many that it would take a volume to describe them all as they deserve.

We copy, however, a portion of the beautiful inscription upon the plate set upon the corner-stone, as an illustration of Sir Jamsetjee's character, and of the creed of enlightened Parsees.

This edifice was erected
By Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, Knight,
The first native of India honored with British Knighthood,
Who thus hoped to perform a pleasing duty
Towards his government, his country, and his people:
And in solemn remembrance of blessings bestowed, to present this,
His offering of religious gratitude, to
Almighty God,
The Father in Heaven—of the Christian—the Hindoo—
Mohammedan—and the Parsee,
With humble, earnest prayer, for his continued care and blessing
Upon his children, his family, his tribe, and his country.

Before the year was out, Sir Jamsetjee received another mark of the approbation of the British Government, in the shape of a gold medal, set with diamonds, "in honor," ran the inscription upon it, "of his munificence and his patriotism." In presenting it to him, the Governor of Bombay, Sir George Arthur, said:—

I could not, Sir Jamsetjee, with perfect satisfaction to myself, perform the pleasing task which has devolved upon me, without instituting some inquiry as to what were the acts of munificence, and what the deeds of patriotism to which the inscription refers. I learnt, after very careful inquiries, that the sums you had publicly given, and which were mostly expended in useful works for the general benefit of the country, amounted to the amazing sum of upwards of 900,000 rupees, or more than £90,000 sterling. Well, indeed, might her majesty's government designate such liberality as acts of "munificence" and deeds of "patriotism!" . . . In inquiring what were the instances of public munificence by which you had distinguished yourself, it was imposaible for me to avoid gaining an insight into your acts of private charity; and according to the best information I have been able to procure, through inquiries made with every desire to avoid hurting your feelings, I have learned that your private charities, though so bestowed that many of them are unknown even to the members of your own family, have been nearly as unbounded.

This eulogy, gratifying as it must have been, coming from the Governor of Bombay, was by no means extravagant. At this very time, Sir Jamsetjee was engaged in carrying through two other works of the greatest public utility, beneficial alike to all classes of the community. The first of these was the construction of a dam and causeway, connecting the islands of Bombay and Salsette. Bombay is one of a numerous group of islands which fringe the Malabar coast. It is about seven miles in length, and three in breadth. Possessing exquisite beauty, its shore opening into quiet bays and inlets, bordered with cocoa-palms, or jutting out in rocky and bold promontories, upon which the waves swell and break, it yet is miserably barren, and its crowded population have to depend for all the daily necessaries of life upon a supply from Salsette and the mainland. The principal line of traffic, running through Salsette, was separated from Bombay by a narrow but dangerous ferry, which at some periods became entirely impassable, and was exposed to frequent accidents, owing to the violent rush of water through the contracted channel. This was not only the occasion of loss of life, but it subjected to great suffering those passengers who might be detained without shelter, exposed to all the inclemency of the weather, and caused extreme inconvenience to the inhabitants of Bombay, who might thus be cut off from an important portion of their supplies. It had been often proposed to bridge the ferry accross; but the funds of the government were too much occupied, for the most part in military objects, and there was too little public spirit in the community, to allow of the proposal being carried into execution. At last, by the benevolence of a single individual, the work was done. It was commenced in 1843, and in April, 1845, an admirable bridge connected with a causeway, extending in united length for more than half a mile, and built with every regard to stability and convenience, was opened to the public. The event was commemorated by an impressive celebration, and we copy from Sir George Arthur's speech on the occasion, the remarkable story of the building of this work. Addressing Sir Jamsetjee, before a crowded audience of natives and Europeans, he said:—

It gives me sincere pleasure to address you on this occasion, after having passed over the noble causeway which, through the munificence of your family, has been

erected for the benefit of the public. I myself, as well as every person present, can bear testimony to the value of this splendid and most useful work. It affords me, therefore, high gratification to address you, for I have to speak on a subject which is interesting to us all—to every one now present—and its interest is best proved by this numerous assembly. As the exact circumstances under which this causeway has been constructed may not be known to all the company, I shall give a short explanatory history of the undertaking. Some years ago, the government of this Presidency, seeing the advantages of a regular communication between the islands of Bombay and Salsette, and being anxious to connect the towns of Mahim and Bandora by a causeway, had the ground surveyed, plans taken, and the estimates of the probable expense of the proposed work calculated. The expenses of such an undertaking, it was reported, would be 67,000 rupees. The expenses of government at the time being very great, the matter was allowed to remain in abeyance until a more favorable opportunity should arise, it not being considered of so great importance as other proposed improvements then before the government. This took place some years ago, and the plans remained unexecuted until the monsoon of 1841, I believe, when a distressing accident occurred at the ferry here. A boat was swamped, and a number of poor natives, I think about 15, lost their lives. This distressing accident was of course a subject of conversation amongst the people, and came to the ears of Lady Jamsetjee, who was greatly pained at its consequences to the families of the sufferers. She spoke to you and asked you, why the Government did not endeavor to remedy an evil which was the cause of such misery among the poor of Salsette? The answer was, that the government was fully occupied in other matters of importance, and that, according to the estimates, it would not only require the large sum already stated, but, moreover, that a second estimate had been made out, by which it was calculated that a further sum would be required, amounting altogether to one lakh of rupees. "Let the consent of the government be obtained," was the answer of this noble-minded woman, "and I will defray all expenses." The consent of government was then obtained, and the work commenced; but it was soon discovered that further sums would be necessary to bring it to completion. Application was made to the Court of Directors for their aid and co-operation, when they, with the liberality which has always characterized their proceedings, when called upon to assist the benevolent natives in their good undertakings, gave their assent. Various other sums were however required, and still supplied by Lady Jamsetjee, till at length, after an expenditure of 155,000 rupees, the structure was completed. It was then suggested that so handsome a structure demanded an equally handsome approach to it, for which it was calculated a sum of 20,000 rupees would be required, which further expenditure was entirely defrayed by that noble-minded person, Lady Jamsetjee. Thus, after an expenditure of 175,000 rupees, has this great and most useful work been perfected, which reflects so great an honor on the kind, the charitable, the benevolent lady, who has thus conferred a lasting benefit on the inhabitants of these islands, whether rich or poor; but more especially by the poorer classes has this great benefit been felt, as by this noble donation their means of transit have been rendered permanently secure, and their lives insured to them from danger. As they have not the opportunity of rendering their thanks to Lady Jamsetjee in person, I am sure you will all unite with me in thanking her in their name, and so perpetuate this noble deed. I this day propose that the causeway henceforth bear the name of "LADY JAMSETJEE'S CAUSEWAY."

The causeway was well named. It will preserve, we trust, for many ages the remembrance of Lady Jamsetjee, and serve as the memorial of a deed which will appear most striking, and most worthy of grateful recollection, to those who are best acquainted with Oriental life. The instances in which woman assumes her true place in the East are so rare; her kindly, universal, sympathies are so commonly crushed by false customs; her love is so often degraded, and all the nobler qualities of her heart so frequently lost—that when she shows herself as she ought to be, as she by nature is, she de-

serves our highest respect, admiration, and honor, and her beautiful example gains our warmest gratitude.

The other public work with which Sir Jamsetjee was occupied, while this causeway was being constructed, was the procuring for the city of Poona a regular supply of water. Poona, which was once the capital of the Maratta State, and is still a considerable place, is situated on a high table-land, and is exposed to frequent and long droughts, during which there was frequent suffering from want of this necessary of life. Two considerable streams unite not far from the city; but their bed lies much below the plain on which it is built, and at seasons when they are the fullest, water could be raised from them only with difficulty. It was determined to dam the streams below their point of union, so as to secure at all periods of the year a sufficient supply, and to connect the pond thus formed by suitable works with a reservoir at the city, 9,000 feet in distance from the dam, and elevated 112 feet above it. During the seven months of annual drought, the streams fill but a small portion of their channel; but "in June and July, after a heavy fall of rain, they will sometimes rise as much as from fifteen to twenty feet in hight in twenty-four hours." The difficulty of erecting a wall eighteen feet high and eight hundred and fifty feet long, strong enough to resist such a flood, may be imagined. Plans were obtained from England, and the dam was completed in 1845; "but cholera had broken out in the neighborhood, and but a few people could be got to work, so that it was nearly a month later in being finished than was expected. The river came down a fortnight sooner than was looked for—the very day the work was completed, and before the mortar had hardened sufficiently to withstand the shock—and the whole gave way. It was rebuilt, and again burst through in 1847; and it is now (1849) once more being reconstructed." This last time, we believe, the attempt has succeeded, and Poona has gained one of the greatest blessings that can be bestowed on any city, and more especially on one within the tropics. On this work Sir Jamsetjee must have expended at least 200,000 rupees.

In 1847, Sir Jamsetjee erected at Bombay a dhurmsalla, or hostelry, for the accommodation of the poor travelers, whom business or necessity brings to the city, and who, arriving in great numbers, often had no place of abode or shelter. It is a large and well-constructed building, affording accommodation for three hundred persons. Not content with erecting it at a cost of 80,000 rupees, Sir Jamsetjee endowed it with 50,000 more for its permanent support, and to this endowment Lady Jamsetjee added a further sum of 20,000 rupees.

Our long list of charities, seeming almost fabulous from their number, their variety, and their amount, is not yet nearly at an end; but our space compels us to bring the account to a close. Not a year has passed without being marked by some act of Sir Jamsetjee's munificence. The schools at Calcutta and Bombay, the benevolent societies, the public works in all parts of the country, have all been aided by his wide-spread charity. No bigoted faith, no false feeling of nationality, no narrow standard of judgment, no contracted theory of duty, has ruled his efforts for the good of mankind—but his high and generous nature—

> "Grasps the whole worlds of reason, life, and sense,
> In one close system of benevolence."

It was in the spring of 1850 that we had the pleasure of knowing Sir Jamsetjee at Bombay. He bears the marks of age in the whiteness of his hair, and the slight tremulousness of his hand; but his expression is quick, and his manners kind and genial, for his heart is warm, and his mind as clear as ever. He lives surrounded with all that should accompany old age —honored by his people, loved by his family and friends, and with the delightful consciousness of the success of his efforts to alleviate misery, and to increase happiness. He has acquired the glory which is best worth having —the glory of good deeds. "*Quid enim est melius, aut quid prestantius, bonitate et beneficentia?*"

We know of no parallel in the records of biography to the benevolence of this Parsee merchant. The lavish spendings of Herodes Atticus, though greater perhaps in amount, are of little value when compared in character with those of this man. One of the great rewards of such wise liberality is, that its example may stimulate other men to similar excellence. We are accustomed to speak proudly of the generosity and the charities throughout our country. But we have little reason to be proud in this respect. Our pride has arisen from our taking a false standard of comparison. We have compared what we have done with what other nations have omitted to do. We have forgotten that we are the most prosperous community that the world ever saw, and that we should be more blameworthy than any other people were we less liberal. While the laws which regulate the acquisition and the possession of property are so ill understood as they at present are all the world over, benevolence is not simply a duty—it is a necessity. More than anywhere else, it is a necessity in a republic like ours. Benevolence is dictated by the most refined selfishness, as well as by virtue. We have learned that expensive schools are the cheapest institution of the State; we have yet to learn that the prevention of pauperism, at any cost, is cheaper than the care of it when it exists; we have yet to learn that the truest pleasure which wealth can afford is in spending it so as to promote the happiness of others. Nor ought our rich men only to be called on to be benevolent. The portion of our community which is too poor to be charitable is very small. The duty is the same to every man, to give to others according to his means. Let every one in his own way devote a portion of his possessions, it matters not whether it be his labor, his money, or his thoughts, to the good of others. Whatever he does for their happiness will return in tenfold happiness to himself, for benevolence is the most divine of virtues.

Art. V.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF MOBILE, 1851–52.

It is well known to our readers that for several years past we have transferred to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review* the annual statements of the Trade and Commerce of New Orleans, Cincinnati, St. Louis, &c., as furnished to our hands by the *Price Currents* of the two former cities, and the *Missouri Republican* of St. Louis. The Mobile *Journal of Commerce, Letter-Sheet Price Current*, publishes annually a similar, but less elaborate review of the business of that port, which we purpose to

republish from year to year. In the present number we have embodied in the review of the *Price Current* the statistical statements of the business of the port (which usually accompanies the review) for several years past.*

REVIEW OF THE BUSINESS OF THE COMMERCIAL YEAR, ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852, WITH TABULAR STATEMENTS OF THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF MOBILE.

The operations of the great staple of Alabama have been on a very large scale. Prices have advanced as steadily as they declined in 1851, and notwithstanding the increase of the crop, the whole, together with a portion of the stock on hand at the opening of the year, has been taken from the market. The Bigbee and the Warrior rivers were very low up to a late date in the year, preventing full receipts and greatly incommoding many of our cotton dealers as well as others, relying upon this portion of the interior for the great bulk of their patronage. The freshet, late in December, however, brought in the planters as well as merchants from that region, and lost time was well made up in obtaining supplies. Our city has been making rapid strides in wealth, population, and prosperity. Almost every old branch of industry appears to have received a stimulant, and goes on with increased activity, while new ones are being daily introduced in our midst. Real estate has advanced largely in all portions of the city, and in some instances rents have improved upwards of 50 per cent. Several new buildings are already completed and ready for their occupants, others—among them the Battle House—are in a state of forwardness, and will be ready by the first of November; while many others have received additions and have been otherwise altered to suit the purposes of business men. The great work of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad is progressing rapidly; the cars for the past three or four months have been making daily trips to Citronelle—the thirty-three mile station—and we hope before the close of the present year to be able to announce the rails laid a considerable distance through Mississippi, as much has already been done towards finishing the road-bed through that State and Tennessee. The large increase in the amount of business done generally in this city, more particulary that by the rivers, has brought steamboat men to work again, and we understand no less than seven or eight new boats are building in the West, one or two at the North, and one at Meaher's Mills, in our immediate vicinity, for the trade of the coming season, in addition to the number employed last season, to ply these rivers, and the lakes between Mobile and New Orleans. Another important branch of business that we take pleasure in recording, is the commencement of a regular line of steam-packets to run between Mobile and New York, touching at Havana and Key-West, going and returning. The first vessel arrived a month or two ago, the second, a new vessel, called the Black Warrior, is looked for daily, and the the third is now on the stocks in New York.

On the 25th and 26th of August—near the close of the commercial year—we were visited by one of the severest and disastrous storms ever known, even to the oldest inhabitant. The waters of the river and bay were blown up to the city, completely flooding the entire of Front, Commerce, and Water streets, and a considerable portion above, causing an immense destruction of property. Nothing being covered by insurance, the whole loss falls upon the owners of property. The confusion attendant upon clearing up rendered it impossible to obtain an accurate account of the stock of groceries at present on hand.

COTTON. We have alluded above to the general features that characterized business in Mobile for the year just closed, so we will now proceed and give a detailed review of the transactions in the staple. At the opening of the year the stock on hand was large, amounting to 27,797 bales, which, added to what was no doubt held over by planters and others in the cotton-growing regions, would have summed up, at the least calculation, 100,000 bales; and some think

* Statistical tables of the Trade and Commerce of Mobile, for previous years, will be found in the volumes of this Magazine from its commencement in 1839.

even 200,000 bales. Prices have gone up steadily from 8 to 9¼ cents for middlings, the latter being the figure now quoted, and at times, in the months of June, July, and August, 9¼ cents were given, while in November they were down to 6¼ cents. The total receipts at this port, including 21,760 bales received at New Orleans direct from Montgomery, are 549,772 bales, against 451,697 bales last year. The amount exported reaches 575,104 bales, exceeding the exports of last year 138,728 bales; and the stock on hand at this port, not cleared, 2,319 bales. The stock held over in the country this season is said to be light. The crop of the United States will be about 3,018,000 bales; that of last year was 2,355,257 bales.

Of the receipts at this port, 24 bales are of the new crop, 14 from the Bigbee, and 10 from the Alabama River, against 401, received at this date last year.

At the opening of the month of September the market was reported quiet, but firm at 8 cents for middlings. Three steamers arrived from Europe during the first week, the first reporting no decided advance, but full and firm prices, and the others, an improvement of ⅛ and ¼d. in quotations at Liverpool. Buyers became and continued anxious to operate, and were restricted in their transactions by the lightness of the stock, together with unfavorable accounts from the growing crop, accompanied by positive instructions to factors not to sell. Total business of the month, about 3,800 bales—prices at the close 8¼ cents for middlings. Total receipts 3,525, and exports, 2,775 bales; against 4,700 bales sales, 5,316 receipts, 21,617 exports, and closing 12¼ cents for middlings same month last year.

October came in on a dull market. The low stage of our rivers, the very light stock on sale, and the relatively high prices asked for that which was offered during the first two weeks, all combined to trammel business. The week following, and the last week, prices drooped rapidly, and holders evinced more disposition to dispose of their stocks than heretofore, and the total sales summed up 9,700 bales. Middlings, 6¼ a 7 cents. Receipts 4,827, and exports 12,429 bales. Sales same time last year 13,209 bales, receipts 12,724 bales, and exports 7,641. Middlings, 13⅛ a 13¼ cents.

During the first three weeks of November, no less than six foreign steamers arrived—each bringing a decline in the European market of ⅛ a ¼d. The effect produced by these accounts was but slight. There existed a moderate demand to be supplied by a small stock, and prices were maintained until the arrival of more favorable accounts from abroad. Quotations were very regular throughout the whole of the month, and closed at 7¼ cents in favor of buyers. Sales, 27,100 bales; receipts, 31,395, and exports, 12,870. Last year, sales, 21,600 bales; receipts, 23,363, and exports, 11,077—middlings closing 13 cents.

The month following, the market opened without animation, and prices slightly giving way, more business was done. Later, however, continued telegraphic accounts of improvements in the Liverpool market being received, a better feeling immediately sprung up, and factors' and brokers' views meeting on the advance, the sales of December were run up to 53,000 bales, middlings closing quietly, but firmly, at 7 cents—and ⅛ a ¼ cents lower than quotations a week previous. Receipts 59,138 bales, and exports 37,937. In December, last year 45,400 bales were sold, 97,602 received, 30,833 exported—month closing with middlings at 12¼ cents.

About the first of the month of January, the rivers having recently become open, the staple came into the market with more freedom, but no reduction in prices followed. Accounts from Europe were, upon the whole, rather favorable. A decline was at one time reported, and on the 3d we quoted middlings 6¼ a 6⅜; from this, however, our market soon rallied and closed quiet, but firm, at 7¼ cents for middlings. For the month, the sales were 105,500 bales; receipts, 141,310, and exports 79,057. Last year, same time, sales were 55,300 bales, receipts 97,602, and exports 30,833—middlings 12¼ cents.

In February, as in the preceding month, the steamer's accounts were generally favorable. At one time prices were up as high as 7⅜, inside for middlings. The

receipts, however, being full, demand somewhat slackened, and prices, at the close of the month in Liverpool, a shade lower, our market settled down at 7¼ a 7¼ for middlings. Monthly sales 97,000 bales, receipts 106,176, and exports 95,855. For the corresponding month in 1851, the sales were 63,000 bales, receipts 88,859, and exports 53,229—middlings being then quoted at 10 cents.

March opened with a general demand, at 7¼ cents for middlings. Holders, notwithstanding the market was easier, were unwilling to make concessions in prices. Additional animation was imparted to business by the arrival of two successive steamers from Liverpool, each announcing an advance in the market; but factors were not then so disposed to make sales, and held out, hoping for a further advance, (which was not received,) thus restricting sales considerably. We report sales for the month 93,000 bales, receipts 92,927, and exports 98,632—prices very irregular, middlings closing at 7¼ cents. March, 1851, sales 43,000 bales, receipts 23,608, and exports 55,560—month going on with middlings 10¼ cents.

Letters by the Pacific, allowing buyers large limits, were received during the early part of the first week and taken advantage of, so that sales were then made at an improvement. Subsequently, accounts came in not so favorable, and there was a little fluctuation in prices, buyers taking what was offered at the current rates, and making the total sales of April 65,100 bales; middlings closing nearly as they opened—7¼ a 7¼ cents. Receipts and exports 61,629 and 81,447 bales, against 40,100 bales, sales 17,751 receipts, and 40,901 bales, exports for the same month last year—middlings 10 cents.

Until late in May the demand was best for the higher qualities, and had there been more stock on sale, the business would have far exceeded what we now report. From the start, prices went up rapidly, and the rise extended beyond the limits of this month. Middlings opened at 7¼ cents and closed at 9¼ cents. The sales were 65,600 bales, receipts 18,382, and exports 76,800. For the corresponding time in 1851, sales 48,900 bales, receipts 17,771, and exports 40,901—middlings closing 8¼ cents.

On the first of June the stock of the staple had become so reduced as to render large transactions entirely out of the question, and very little effect was produced by the steamer's accounts, either favorable or to the contrary. The month opened with middlings 9 a 9¼ and closed at 9¼. Nine and three-quarter cents was the highest point attained by this class of cotton, and that only for a few days. Transactions of the month limited to 9,750 bales, receipts 3,218, and exports 39,189. Last year, same time, the sales were 29,600 bales, receipts 5,228, and exports 28,833—middlings 8 cents at the close.

July was an unparalleledly dull month. Accounts from Europe, by steamers, were generally unfavorable, but a low stock and light demand kept prices nearly at the old figure. During the first week, however, our quotations were reduced a shade, on account of intelligence of the unsettled state of business in Liverpool. Sales reached 5,100 bales, receipts 1,825, and exports 8,169—middlings nominal at 9 cents. Same time last year, sales 24,000 bales, receipts 4,703, and exports 28,833—middling closing 7¼ cents.

For dullness, the month of August surpassed anything we had previous. From beginning to end the transactions were on the lightest scale, the total amount of sales scarce reaching 3,500 bales—month ending with middlings at 9¼ cents. Receipts 1,041 bales, exports 3,012 bales. In August, 1851, there were sales 5,900 bales, receipts 571, and exports 1,964—middlings 8 cents.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM MOBILE FOR THE YEAR COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1, 1851, AND ENDING AUGUST 31, 1852.

Ports.		Ports.	
Liverpool	296,542	New York	36,206
Hull	3,824	Boston	42,105
Glasgow and Greenock	7,147	Providence	21,456
Cowes and a market	.....	Philadelphia	4,335
Belfast	.....	Baltimore	3,276
		New Orleans	37,248
Total to Great Britain	307,513	Other ports	.....
Havre	91,364		
Rochelle	480	Total coastwise	144,626
Marseilles	2,343		
Nantes, &c	1,730	Grand total	575,104
Total to France	95,917		
Amsterdam & Rotterdam	2,635	RECAPITULATION.	
Antwerp	4,182	Great Britain	307,513
Hamburg, Bremen, St. Peters'rg	2,009	France	95,917
Stockholm, Ghent, &c	.....	Other foreign ports	27,048
Gibraltar & Barcelona	5,461		
Havana, &c	102	Total foreign	430,478
Genoa, Trieste, &c	8,478	Total United States	144,626
Other ports	4,181		
Total to other foreign ports	27,048	Grand total	575,104

MONTHLY RANGE OF PRICES OF COTTON AT MOBILE FOR SIXTEEN YEARS.

Season of	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.
1836–37	16 a 20	15 a 19	12½ a 17½	12 a 12½	12 a 17½
1837–38	7⅞ 12	6½ 11⅝	6 12	7½ 12½	6¼ 12
1838–39	10 11	10 12	10 14⅜	11⅜ 15½	12½ 16⅜
1839–40	12⅜ 13	11½ ..	9½ 9½	8 8½	7½ 7½
1840–41	7½ 10½	7½ 10	8½ 10½	8½ 11⅜	7 12½
1841–42	nominal.	7½ 9⅜	7⅛ 8⅞	7⅛ 10½	7½ 10
1842–43	7½ 8½	6⅞ 8⅜	5⅜ 7⅜	5½ 7⅛	5½ 8
1843–44	6 8	6⅜ 8⅜	7⅜ 9½	7⅜ 10	7½ 10
1844–45	5½ 6½	4⅛ 6½	4 5⅜	3½ 6	3⅜ 6⅜
1845–46	6½ 8⅞	6⅜ 8⅜	6⅜ 8⅜	6 8½	6 8½
1846–47	8 10	9 11	8½ 11	9 12	9 13
1847–48	8½ 11½	5½ 8½	6½ 7⅜	6 7⅜	6 7⅜
1848–49	4½ 6½	4½ 5½	4½ 6	5 7	5½ 7
1849–50	9 11	9½ 11½	9½ 11	10 12½	10⅜ 12½
1850–51	12⅜ 14½	13 14½	12½ 13½	11½ 13½	7 13
1851–52	6 9½	6 8	6 8½	6½ 8½	6½ 8½

Season of	March.	April.	May.	June.	Average for season.
1836–37	11½ a 17½	6 a 13½	5 a 10	6½ a 11	10⅜ a 16
1837–38	7½ 12½	8½ 13½	8½ 13⅜	8½ 14	7½ 12⅜
1838–39	13⅜ 17½	14 17⅜	14½ 18	13½ 17	12½ 15⅜
1839–40	7½ 7½	7½ 7½	7½ 7½	7⅜ 7⅞	8⅜ 8⅜
1840–41	9½ 12	10 12½	9⅜ 12½	9½ 11½	8⅜ 11⅜
1841–42	7 10	7 10⅜	7 10½	7½ 10½	7½ 10
1842–43	4⅞ 7½	5½ 7⅜	5⅜ 8½	5⅞ 8⅜	5⅜ 8
1843–44	6⅜ 9½	5⅜ 8⅜	5 8	4⅜ 8	6½ 8⅜
1844–45	4½ 7½	5 7	5 6⅞	5½ 7	4½ 6½
1845–46	6½ 9	6½ 8⅞	5⅞ 7⅜	6 7⅜	6½ 8½
1846–47	8½ 11⅜	9½ 11½	9⅜ 12	8⅜ 11	9 11½
1847–48	6 7⅜	4½ 7	4 6½	4½ 6⅜	5⅜ 7⅞
1848–49	5⅜ 7	5½ 7	5½ 7½	6½ 8½	5 7
1849–50	10½ 12	10½ 12	11 12½	11 12½	10 12
1850–51	6½ 11½	8 11½	5½ 9⅞	5½ 9	8⅜ 12
1851–51	6½ 8⅜	6½ 9	6 10½	8 10½	6½ 9½

LIVERPOOL CLASSIFICATION.

Ordinary	8¼ a 9
Middling	9¼ 10
Good middling	nominal.
Middling fair	nominal.
Fair	nominal.

The receipts up the latest dates, at all the ports, give the following results:—

	Increase.	Decrease.
New Orleans	443,806	.....
Charleston	82,212	.....
Texas	17,633	.....
Mobile	40,872	.....
Savannah	116,126	.....
Florida	10,053	.....
North Carolina	3,199	.....
Virginia	.....	2,873
	713,901	2,873
	2,873	
Total increase this season	711,028	

The foreign exports this season, as compared with last, will exhibit an increase:—

	Increase.
To Great Britain	247,355
France	122,920
Other foreign ports	83,576
Total increase	453,851

The increase in coastwise exports is 275,558 bales. The decrease in stock at all the receiving ports is 15,023 bales.

STOCK OF COTTON IN WAREHOUSE AND ON SHIPBOARD.

	Bales.	Ship-mark.
Union Press and Warehouses	76	278
Shipper's Press and Warehouses	72	...
Planter's Press and Warehouses	97	...
Alabama Press and Warehouses	112	778
Factor's Press and Warehouses	516	...
Holt's Warehouse	139	...
Matthews' Press and Warehouses	63	...
Pickeries' and Private Worehouses	69	...
On wharves	46	...
	1,190	1,056
	1,056	
On board brig Machigonne	73	
Stock on hand, August 1st	2,319	

THE GROWING CROP. Notwithstanding the unpropitiousness of the planting season, the heavy rains that followed bringing on lice and other insects, causing, to the sorrow of the planters, great destruction of the young plant, thus throwing the crop back about two weeks, the prospects are fine for at least an average crop. The weather, after the plant had attained some little age, was fine for cultivation, and so continued, and at last account from the interior the picking season had commenced, and all the hands were busy in the fields. From East Mississippi we hear complaints that the boll-worm had commenced its ravages, but with this exception, and a repetition of the same complaint from some portions of West Alabama, the reports from Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi are mostly of a favorable nature. From the great uncer-

tainty in arriving at anything like a correct estimate of the amount of receipts, we refrain from giving any figures. The first bale of the new crop was received on the 19th, and last year on the 7th of August.

COTTON CROP OF THE STATE OF ALABAMA FOR 28 YEARS.

Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease.	Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease.
1825.....	58,283	13,359	.....	1839.....	251,742	.....	58,065
1826.....	74,379	16,096	.....	1840.....	445,725	193,983	.....
1827.....	89,779	15,400	.....	1841.....	317,642	.....	128,083
1828.....	71,155	.....	18,624	1842.....	318,315	673	.....
1829.....	80,329	9,174	.....	1843.....	482,631	164,316	.....
1830.....	102,684	22,355	.....	1844.....	468,126	.....	14,505
1831.....	113,075	10,391	.....	1845.....	517,550	49,421	.....
1832.....	125,605	12,530	.....	1846.....	421,669	.....	95,881
1833.....	129,366	3,761	.....	1847.....	322,516	.....	99,153
1834.....	149,513	20,147	.....	1848.....	438,324	115,808	.....
1835.....	197,847	48,334	.....	1849.....	517,846	79,522	.....
1836.....	237,590	39,743	.....	1850.....	332,796	.....	185,050
1837.....	232,685	.....	4,905	1851.....	433,646	100,850	.....
1838.....	309,807	77,122	.....	1852.....	549,772	116,126	.....

LUMBER, TIMBER, AND STAVES. Our tables show a large increase in the amount of exports of the two former, and a decrease in the latter of the above articles. The lumber trade is rapidly increasing, and several new saw mills have been erected, which, together with those previously in operation, have been pretty generally employed throughout the year, sending off about two-thirds larger quantity than last year. Several vessels have loaded with timber, principally for French ports, and the exports double those of last year. From the uncertainty in obtaining staves, at stated times, this business has greatly fallen off.

COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF STAVES FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR THREE YEARS, TO DATE.

	1851–2.	1850–51.	1849–50.
Cuba.....	.....	8,000	.....
Mexico.....	.....	.....	.....
Other ports	177,681	105,826	272,019
Coastwise.....	50,800	246,953	405,924
Total.....	228,481	360,779	677,943

COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF SAWED LUMBER FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR THREE YEARS, TO DATE.

	1851–2.	1850–1.	1849–50.
Cuba	4,238,676	2,104,862	1,968,471
Mexico.....	79,272	268,523	250,924
Other ports.....	396,648	12,420	334,718
Coastwise	5,478,059	4,430,249	4,739,783
Total	10,189,655	6,816,054	7,293,896

NAVAL STORES. The trade in these articles, though only about four or five years old, has met with unprecedented success. Constant improvements are making in the manufacture of the various articles; the quality of spirits of turpentine is much better than at the commencement, and has commanded 40 cents per gallon for a medium article. Very little Naval Stores have been sold in this market. Most of the crude turpentine, and A No. 1 white rosin was shipped to New York, and the balance westward. The receipts and prices are as follows: 1,460 bbls. spirits turpentine, 40 cents per gallon: 799 crude do., $1 75 a $2 per bbl.; 482 do. pitch, $3 bbl.; 258 do. tar, $2 per bbl.; 20 bbls. bright and varnish at 20 cents per gallon; and 3,019 bbls. rosin, $1 25 a $3 50 per bbl.

FREIGHTS. The large increase in the cotton crop gave additional animation to the freight market during the year under review, and for the greater part of the business season rates ruled high. For a long time ¼d. was paid to Liverpool,

and to Havre 13-16 to 1 1-16 cents was the range. Until April, vessels trading to coastwise ports were doing a good business, 9-16 cents being obtained for New York. Shipments have been made since as low as 75 cents per bale. The lumber and timber tables show large exports, indicative of a considerable business in freight for these articles. More vessels have loaded with timber for the various ports on the Eastern Continent, and with lumber to Texas and Northern ports, than we have noticed for several years. The timber freights are generally at a round charter, and those for lumber vary from $3 to $12 per M. A scarcity of vessels, of light draught, interfered with more extensive business in lumber on the Texas coast.

CURRENT RATES OF COTTON FREIGHTS, FOREIGN AND COASTWISE, AT THE PORT OF MOBILE DURING THE COMMERCIAL SEASON OF 1851 AND 1852.

Months.	LIVERPOOL. Pence.	HAVRE. Cents.	NEW YORK.
September	3-8	.....	$2 a 1-2c.
October	1-2 a 9-16	.....	$2 1-2c.
November	7-16 1-2	7-8 a 1	$2 1-2c.
December	5-16 15 32	13-16 15-16	1-2c.
January	3-8 13-32	13-16 31-32	1-2 9-16c.
February	11-32 13-32	7-8 15-16	$2 9-16c.
March	3-8 1-2	7-8 15-16	1-2 9-16c.
April	15-32 9-12	15-16 1 1-16	5-8c.
May	1-4 5-8	1 1 1-16	$1 5-8c.
June	1-4 9-32	.....	75c.
July	3-4	.....	.....
August	1-4	.....	$2

EXCHANGE. There is less evidence of uniformity in the rates of sterling exchange, as exhibited by our tables this year, than was noticed in our last annual report. Sixty-day bills on New York were at 1¼ per cent discount at the opening, and are at ¼ per cent discount at the close of the year. Bills on France have varied very little—5 20 a 5 30 being the range. The supply of exchange, particularly of domestic bills, has been moderate, and the demand pretty brisk.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF EXCHANGE ON LONDON, PARIS, AND NEW YORK, ON THE 1ST OF EACH MONTH, FOR THREE YEARS PAST.

(SIXTY-DAY BILLS.)

Months.	1851–2. London. prem.	Paris. per $.	N. York. dis.	1850–1. London. prem.	Paris. per $	N. York. dis.	1849–50. London. prem.	Paris. per $.	N. Y'k. dis.
September	9	5.20	1⅛	8¼	5.37	1	8¼	5.30	⅜
October	9	5.20	1⅛	8¼	5.37	1⅛	9¼	5.30	⅜
November	7¼	5.20	2⅛	8¼	5.37	2¼	8¼	5.30	1¼
December	8¼	5.28¾	2¼	7¼	5.34¼	2¼	7¼	5.35	1¼
January	8¼	5.27½	2¼	7¼	5.34¼	2⅛	5⅛	5.50	2¼
February	8⅛	5.27½	2¼	7¼	5.35	3	6	5.50	1¼
March	8⅛	5.27½	2¼	7¼	5.32	2¼	7¼	5.40	1⅛
April	8⅛	5.27½	1¼	9¼	5.25	1¼	7⅛	5.40	1¼
May	8¼	5.30	1¼	9⅛	5.22½	1¼	9⅛	5.25	⅜
June	9¼	5.30	1⅛	10	5.15	¼	9¼	5.25	⅜
July	9⅛	5.30	1¼	9¼	5.20	1¼	9	5.35	1¼
August	9⅛	5.30	¼	9¼	5.20	1¼	9	5.37	1

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF IMPORTS AND DUTIES AT THIS PORT FOR THE THIRD AND FOURTH QUARTERS, 1851, AND THE FIRST AND SECOND QUARTERS, 1852.

THIRD QUARTER, 1851.

Value of imports, dutiable	$75,431
Value of imports, free	1,800
Total imports	$76,231

Amount of duties collected, $14,885.

FOURTH QUARTER, 1851.

Value of imports, dutiable	$138,146
Value of imports, free	168,036
Total imports	$306,182

Amount of duties collected, $27,052.

FIRST QUARTER, 1852.

Value of imports, dutiable	$178,724
Value of imports, free	5,776
Total imports	$184,500

Amount of duties collected, $58,049.

SECOND QUARTER, 1852.

Value of imports, dutiable	$99,890
Value of imports, free	35,115
Total imports	$135,005

Amount of duties collected, $31,263.

Total amount of imports	$701,918 00
Total amount of duties collected for past year	131,249 00
Total imports of 1850-51	440,404 00
Total duties collected for 1850-51*	96,276 94

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS OF THE FOLLOWING STAPLE ARTICLES INTO THIS PORT FOR THREE YEARS.

	1851-2.	1850-1.	1849-50.		1851-2.	1850-1.	1849-50.
Bagging	17,012	30,402	24,901	Molasses	18,095	23,672	18,042
Bale rope	16,585	30,926	22,460	Oats	20,985	29,121	12,429
Bacon	11,500	16,607	9,269	Potatoes	22,014	16,248	20,243
Coffee	28,538	25,236	18,928	Pork	15,589	23,949	8,016
Corn	83,380	98,086	79,038	Rice	1,491	1,832	1,387
Flour	74,329	95,054	70,570	Salt	154,351	128,700	154,183
Hay	26,852	27,143	23,189	Sugar	6,083	6,634	7,760
Lard	22,481	20,021	10,562	Whisky	15,597	23,868	21,440
Lime	31,027	23,745	19,322	Candles			

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

UNDER WHAT CIRCUMSTANCES A FOREIGN MINISTER CAN SUE AND BE SUED IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the case of Bosch Spencer *vs.* Romain D. Boon and Annie Vanlangenhore, in the Superior Court of Baltimore city, it was decided under what circumstances a foreign minister has the right to sue and be sued in this country. The question arose upon a motion to quash a writ of attachment which had been sued out under the laws of Maryland, Acts of 1825, chapter 114, by the plaintiff, describing himself "an inhabitant of the District of Columbia, in the United States," against the defendants, who are alleged not to be citizens of the United States, nor to reside therein.

On behalf of the defendants, a certificate from the Department of State is produced, showing that the "Chevalier de Bosch Spencer is the Charge d'Affaires duly accredited, of his Majesty the King of the Belgians, near the Government of the United States;" and for this, and other reasons assigned, the present motion is made to quash the proceedings.

* About $20,000 remained in warehouse.

1. Because by reason of his character as a foreign minister he is incapacitated to sue in the courts of the State; and

2. By reason of his not being within the designation of the Act, as he describes himself, "an inhabitant of the District of Columbia."

The act upon which this proceeding is predicated, provides: "That it may be lawful for any person, an inhabitant or resident of any part of the United States, whether of one of the States or of the District of Columbia or other territories, and who by the existing laws of this State may be entitled to sue out and prosecute *mesne* process, to have, use and prosecute the process by attachment," &c.

The defendants deny the plaintiff's right to sue, because of his recognized immunity from arrests and responsibility to the tribunals of the country to which he is accredited. It is also contended that he cannot reasonably claim the jurisdiction of a court against whose proceedings he has this personal immunity. They also maintain that by the constitution of the United States, the Supreme Court of the United States has exclusive jurisdiction of all such cases.

The Court, in delivering their opinion, declare that the validity of these objections must be determined by an examination of the nature, the reason, and the extent of the ambassador's privileges in the courts of the country to which he is accredited. If this privilege can be waived at all, by his voluntarily submitting himself as a party in those courts, he must incur all the legal consequences and responsibilities of his assuming that position. If he has the right to institute a suit, he assumes, by doing so, all the responsibilities of an ordinary plaintiff in like cases, and must be deemed to have waived his privilege to that extent. It is true, as all the authorities assume, that he is generally independent of the civil and criminal jurisdiction of the country in which he resides as minister. The general consent of nations has long since determined this immunity, upon unanswerable grounds of international policy. It is absolutely necessary to the free and undisturbed discharge of the duties of the ambassador as the representative of his sovereign. Too much facility and security cannot be afforded to him, in the exercise of functions which concern the Commerce, welfare, and peace of nations. It is reasonable that he should not be molested or harassed in the performance of duties of so much dignity and importance, where the interruption might as readily be instigated by vexatious or political motives, as proceed from justifiable causes.

But being thus protected, from reasons of public policy, does it follow that he is divested of all right of private redress, by a resort to our courts, where the door is open to all other suitors in civil cases? Cases may readily be conceived, involving no consequences affecting the dignity or public character of his mission. A public minister from abroad may, for convenience, or for necessary safety, have his funds on deposit with banks or bankers of the District. He may, without derogating from the dignity of his sovereign, have made investments in the corporate stocks and other securities of the country. He must, of necessity, contract to rent or lease a suitable dwelling for the accommodation of his family. He is in no manner restricted in private contracts that do not derogate from his mission or his public character. In the possible case of embezzlement or danger to his private funds or investments, or in any breach of contract on the part of others contracting with him on private account, would it not be unreasonable to say that he has no redress in the only tribunals which can afford him relief and indemnity?

The privilege of which we are treating is abundantly shown by all the authorities to attach to the representative character of the minister. But the same authorities are equally clear to the point that he may in certain cases renounce it.

The Court, after quoting the various cases that have risen, says, it seems to be a concession of all the authorities that in a matter having no relation to his public character and functions he is not entitled to the privilege growing out of official position. Thus, then, his privilege may be both forfeited and waived. Whether so far as to submit to personal arrest is another question, and no part of the present discussion. The waiver of his diplomatic character to that extent might be considered as involving the dignity of his sovereign and his mis-

sion, and of course not within the exception. See the case of United States vs. Benner, 1, Baldwin, 234, before cited. But in the predicament of a voluntary plaintiff in a civil action, from the views above stated, and in a matter affecting his private interests, he is as fully "authorized to sue out *mesne* process" as any other suitor to whom the tribunals of the State are open.

So the case stands upon the general principles of international law. But the proposition thus established is again assailed upon the ground taken in argument that the constitution of the United States has delegated to the Supreme Court, or at all events to the courts of the Union, exclusive jurisdiction "in all cases affecting ambassadors, public ministers, and consuls;" and, consequently, that the only resort of the parties designated is to these courts. Judge Story, in his "Commentaries on the Constitution," (§ 1,652,) commends this particular provision upon the obvious impolicy of submitting to any other than the highest judicatory of the nation; a matter, touching as it does, the dignity and interest of the sovereign in the person of his representative. But in this, and the succeeding section, he is manifestly treating of process and proceedings against ambassadors, and their right of final resort to the Supreme Court in cases thus affecting them. In fact, the whole policy of this law of protection points to this personal privilege and immunity of the ambassador. He has the privilege to sue and be sued in the supreme judicature of the nation, and immunity against being called to answer elsewhere; upon the obvious reasons before stated for such a policy. But that it is meant to be exclusive also in relation to suits to be brought by ambassadors and other public ministers may be safely denied.

The next question is, does the plaintiff come within the designation of those to whom the benefit of this Act of 1825, chapter 114, is available; the objection being now that he is not a resident or inhabitant of any of the States, Territories, or District of the United States, in contemplation of that Act?

The rule of international law of which we are treating, in order to give additional force to its policy, with regard to ambassadors, adopts a legal fiction, that they are to be taken for the person of those whom they represent; and by a still stronger paradox asserts, that "they are taken not to be within the territory of the State in which they are sent to reside." This legal fiction we have now to encounter, with the argument it suggests, that the plaintiff, being in contemplation of law out of the District of Columbia, and retaining his original domicil abroad, it becomes a legal impossibility that he can be deemed a resident or inhabitant within this Act of 1825; and as such entitled to the benefit of our attachment laws.

Apart then from the legal fiction is not the plaintiff "an inhabitant of the District of Columbia?" So far as the Court is informed he has no residence elsewhere. It is not shown or objected that he intends to return. For all that appears, the business of his sovereign or his own may detain him here *indefinitely*. If, under these circumstances, he chooses to claim the District as his personal residence, who is to gainsay it. He declares in his affadavit that he is an "inhabitant" there, and we have nothing but this potential fiction to controvert it.

If I am right in the original proposition, that the privilege of the ambassador attaches only to his representative functions and character, and that cases may arise in which he may voluntarily renounce it; when such an occasion does occur, is not the fiction which gives vitality to this privilege at an end? The best answer I can give to it is, *cessat ratio, cessat lex.* It is the only answer that need be given to the present objection. Remove the fiction and it is undeniable that the plaintiff is an inhabitant, personally present in the District of Columbia Now if he can make a case himself where the immunity ceases, and such a case is made when he voluntarily presents himself as a plaintiff in a state tribunal, what becomes of the fiction? It was assumed in law for his benefit and protection, and he has abandoned it.

On these premises, the plaintiff has brought himself and his case within the terms of the Act of 1825, chapter 114. And the motion of the defendants to quash the whole proceedings is overruled.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY—DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE SPIRIT OF ENTERPRISE, AND SPECULATION—THE DANGER OF A THIRST FOR SUDDEN RICHES—BANKS AND BANKING—INCREASE OF NEW BANKS—DOMESTIC TRADE AND INTERIOR COLLECTIONS—PRICES OF STOCKS AND BONDS—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS FOR OCTOBER—DITTO AT ALL THE MINTS SINCE JANUARY 1ST—PRODUCTION OF CALIFORNIA GOLD, AND EXPORT TO GREAT BRITAIN—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—CLASSIFICATION OF IMPORTS, WITH THE RECEIPTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS—REVENUE OF THE COUNTRY—CASH RECEIPTS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER, AND FROM JUNE 1ST—SHIPMENTS OF LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE—DIVERSION OF SHIPPING TO AUSTRALIA, AND CONSEQUENT ADVANCE IN RATES OF FREIGHT.

We have heretofore noticed, amid all the indications of general prosperity which have abounded on every side, the absence of an extravagant spirit of speculation, and have urged this fact as evidence that no sudden revulsion need be expected. The result has verified our anticipations, for the past year has witnessed a marked success, almost without exception in any branch of industrial pursuits. As the year draws towards its close, many eyes are turned to the future, and an unusual eagerness is manifested in watching the signs of the times. There can be no question but what more animation has been felt throughout the various markets of the country, and that almost every species of property has risen in value. Is this a speculative movement, or has it a legitimate basis? If speculative, it is certainly unlike the species of speculation which has prevailed antecedent to former commercial disasters, of which it was supposed to be the precursor, if not the cause. There has been no general wildness of investment; no large purchases of property, without regard to its intrinsic value, simply because it might sell at an advance. Nearly all of the speculative operations have been inside the channels of legitimate business, and not outside, as was the case in the former periods above referred to; and there has been no extraordinary increase in the circulation of paper money. The spirit of enterprise which gives an impulse to trade, Commerce, and manufactures; which increases the general activity so that its effects are felt far and wide through every department of industry, is, after all, very different from the true spirit of speculation, which induces those possessed with it, to abandon their regular pursuits, and to rush after some *ignis fatuus* to their own ruin. Still there is enough in the signs of the times, to suggest caution in regard to the future. There must be a period to the general upward tendency of prices, and this must be followed by more or less of reaction. When this reaction will come it is of course impossible to say; there are no signs that it will occur soon. But as it must come sooner or later, it would be well for each to bear its approach in mind, and not to be taken unawares. One of the worst calamities which can befall any community, is the diffusion of a general thirst for sudden riches. The desire once fastened upon the mind, the old beaten path where slow gains are attended with a corresponding security, is abandoned for some more attractive course, where a fortune is promised in a day. There is no truth in political economy of so much vital importance, which

mankind are so slow to learn, as this *that the promise of great gains at a small expense and risk, is always a deceit.* It is one of the most barefaced cheats ever practiced, and yet, strange to say, it is one of the most successful. It appeals to a craving of the natural heart which is seldom wanting. It is the principle of the lottery, which has such a strange fascination for its victims. Many a man would invest a dollar with only one chance in one hundred of making $100, when he would not make the investment with ninety-nine chances in one hundred of making only one dollar. The rule is positive and almost without exception, that the promise of a large gain at a small cost, must be accompanied by the certainty of a corresponding risk. Still, from the lottery down to the last bubble just ready to burst, such schemes will not want for supporters.

There has been since our last a fresh impulse given to the business of banking, and particularly throughout the western country; in Indiana and Illinois the number of new banks israpidly increasing. Wisconsin is soon to follow in the same track. The great difficulty in the way of successful banking in the new States, has arisen from the want of a surplus cash capital. If banking be the business of lending money, it is necessary to its success first of all to secure a capital; and this in a new State where there is no floating capital seeking investment, is not an easy matter. Under the new banking law recently enacted at the West, State stocks, and in Wisconsin, a certain class of railroad bonds, are to supply the place of a specie basis. If carried to a moderate extent this security will no doubt be ample; but should it be overdone, and a panic ensue, the result cannot but be disastrous. Thus far, the eagerness to enter the new field has been too great for the development of a proper system. The sudden and simultaneous establishment of nearly fifty new institutions in the section of country referred to, does not promise for the new banks a very healthy growth. It is supposed by many that these banks are owned at the East, and are only designed to furnish a depreciated currency for the Atlantic States, issued so far from home as to defeat any attempt to secure a specie redemption at or near its par value. If this be the end in view, it will not probably be successful. The mysteries of banking are better understood than formerly, and the public are indisposed to tolerate a paper representative of money, where it cannot be converted into coin at its par value.

In New York city, and in Connecticut also, new banks have been multiplied, the long continued ease in the money market having made such modes of investment more desirable.

The trade in dry goods has been unusually prosperous, and the coming season promises a like satisfactory return. The collections from the country have been very successful, and the losses from bad debts in every branch of business have been smaller than for many years. The recent advance in iron has given a fresh impulse to the domestic manufacture, and the producers of cotton and woolen goods are active, most of them at remunerating prices.

There has been a further general advance in most descriptions of bonds and stocks, based partly upon their increased value from a more active business, and partly upon some speculative movements which have made certain parties "short," and given the "bulls" an advantage. The receipts of gold from California continue large, notwithstanding that great numbers of miners have been

drawn off to Australia. We annex our usual statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints for the month of October:—

DEPOSITS FOR OCTOBER.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold	$169,403	$23,485	$4,065,000	$4,140,000
Silver	.....	5,846	.....	.....
Total	$169,403	$198,734	.....	.....

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	.....	.....	142,062	$2,841,240
Eagles	.....	.....	18,600	180,600
Half eagles	.....	.....	23,210	116,050
Quarter eagles	.....	.....	142,036	355,090
Gold dollars	40,000	$40,000	173,046	173,046
Total gold coinage	40,000	$40,000	498,954	$3,566,026

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars	16,000	$8,000	14,000	$7,000
Quarter dollars	.....	.....	30,600	7,650
Dimes	.....	.....	200,000	20,000
Half-dimes	.....	.....	106,000	5,300
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	2,666,800	80,004
Total silver coinage.	16,000	$8,000	$3,017,400	$119,954

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	.....	.....	121,260	$1,212
Total coinage	56,000	$48,000	$3,637,614	$3,787,192

We have also carefully compiled a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Mint and branches from January 1, to October 31st, which will be found to contain many items of interest.

COINAGE OF THE MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM JANUARY 1, TO OCTOBER 31, 1852.

Mints.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total.
Philadelphia	$40,744,390	$593,604	$40,335	$41,378,329
New Orleans	3,825,000	144,000	.....	3,969,000
Charlotte, N. C.	312,944	.....	.....	312,944
Dahlonega, Geo.	389,316	.....	.....	389,316
Total	$45,271,650	$737,604	$40,335	$46,049,589

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF DEPOSITS OF GOLD AT THE MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM JANUARY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, IN THE YEARS 1851 AND 1852.

PHILADELPHIA MINT.

	1851.	1852.
United States gold	$36,069,164	$39,340,260
Other gold	631,950	962,635
Total	$36,701,114	$40,302,895

NEW ORLEANS MINT.

United States gold	$6,607,135	$3,116,400
Other gold	130,106	133,102
Total	$6,737,241	$3,249,502

CHARLOTTE, (N. C.,) MINT.		
United States gold	$252,487	$341,645
DAHLONEGA, (GEO.,) MINT.		
United States gold.....	$218,023	$380,650
AT ALL THE MINTS.		
United States gold	$43,146,809	$43,178,955
Other gold	762,056	1,095,737
Total.....	$43,908,865	$44,274,692

We also annex a comparison of the total deposits of gold at all the mints for 10 months, distinguishing between the receipts from California and other portions of the United States:—

	1851.	1852.		
California	$42,656,723	$42,576,127	Decrease	$80,596
Other domestic.....	490,086	602,828	Increase	112,742
Foreign, (chiefly coin)....	762,056	1,095,737	Increase	333,681
Total.....	$43,908,865	$44,274,692	Increase	$365,827

The deposits for November at the Philadelphia mint, up to the date of our going to press, amount to $4,792,000 against $4,960,000 for the same period of 1851. The arrivals are later than last year, being at the close of each month one less than for the same period of last year. Unless the latest December arrival should be in time to forward its gold to be included in the statement for that month, the total deposits for the year, will, from this cause, fall a little behind the amount deposited during 1851. The exports of gold dust to England directly from San Francisco have been larger this year than last. For the first six months of 1852, according to a statement of the Bank of England, the total was £1,100,000 against £1,300,000 for the *whole* of 1851.

While the revenue of the country from the imports continues large, the value of the imports is not materially increasing, being confined more to rich dutiable goods. The receipts from foreign ports at New York for October, are only $70,199 greater than for the same month of 1851, and are $945,504 less than for October 1850, as will appear from the following comparison:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption.....	$6,748,965	$5,790,795	$7,775,614
Entered for warehousing.....	953,680	1,204,994	594,426
Free goods.....	362,866	1,558,720	215,143
Specie.....	1,527,866	23,165	62,690
Total entered at the port	$9,593,377	$8,577,674	$8,647,873
Withdrawn from warehouse....	1,115,072	1,602,436	1,256,570

Of the above increase as compared with last year, $39,525 was in specie, so that the difference in the imports of merchandise is comparatively trifling. This is owing to the falling off in the receipts of general merchandise and more particularly to the small import of tea and coffee, as the receipts of dry goods for the month show a considerable increase.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods	$2,646,236	$2,686,538	$3,609,013
General merchandise	5,419,275	5,867,971	4,976,170
Total merchandise	$8,065,511	$8,554,509	$8,585,183

The total from January 1st, however, shows a falling off in the receipts both of dry goods and general merchandise, making a total of $8,260,088 below the imports of the corresponding period of last year, as will be seen by the annexed comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR TEN MONTHS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Dry goods	$56,155,734	$57,233,400	$53,142,506
General merchandise	52,460,560	59,626,708	55,457,514
Total merchandise	$108,616,294	$116,860,108	$108,600,020

The amount for the expired portion of the current year, it will be seen, compares very nearly with the corresponding total for 1850. When we come to examine the particulars, however, we notice some remarkable changes; in the specie, it will be remembered, that the item for 1850 includes California gold:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS ENTERED AT NEW YORK FOR TEN MONTHS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Entered for consumption	$87,280,498	$96,216,865	$91,080,891
Entered for warehousing	13,541,449	11,914,911	7,134,316
Free goods	7,844,347	8,728,332	10,384,813
Specie	16,096,385	1,805,694	2,214,644
Total entered at the port	$124,712,679	$118,665,802	$110,814,664
Withdrawn from warehouse	9,326,490	11,403,970	13,463,496

Here it will be seen that while the goods entered directly for consumption are $5,000,000 less than for the same period of last year, and the goods entered for warehousing show also a similar decline, the goods withdrawn from warehouse exhibit an increase of $2,000,000. A more striking difference still is exhibited in the comparison with the similar ten months of 1850. The value entered directly for consumption is nearly $4,000,000 greater, while the goods entered for warehousing are $6,000,000 less, and the total withdrawn from warehouse is $4,000,000 in excess. We may now expect an increase in the value of goods warehoused, but for the last year, and particularly the last two quarters, the demand for foreign merchandise has been so active that a large proportion of the imports have been thrown directly on the market, and the stock in warehouse drawn down very low. This has been especially the case in dry goods, the trade in which has been particularly profitable. We have given above the total imports of dry goods; we now annex particulars both for the month of October and the ten months since January 1st. It will be seen that for the month there is an increase from last year in the total entered at the port of $922,475, and about the same amount as compared with 1850; while for the ten months there is a decrease of $4,090,894 from 1851, and of $3,013,228 as compared with 1850:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF OCTOBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$576,580	$416,788	$1,077,608
Manufactures of cotton	314,028	229,166	387,454
Manufactures of silk	762,231	687,355	1,317,205
Manufactures of flax	451,455	273,065	413,464
Miscellaneous dry goods	202,295	195,475	168,379
Total	$2,306,589	$1,801,799	$3,364,210

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$151,313	$78,782	$49,936
Manufactures of cotton	48,803	48,188	28,798
Manufactures of silk	65,932	144,646	141,266
Manufactures of flax	23,907	53,667	30,519
Miscellaneous dry goods	6,263	68,538	32,556
Total	$296,218	$393,821	$283,075
Add entered for consumption	2,306,589	1,801,799	3,364,210
Total thrown on the market	$2,602,807	$2,195,620	$3,647,285

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$96,366	$128,408	$86,195
Manufactures of cotton	94,745	90,130	57,130
Manufactures of silk	63,977	494,462	19,718
Manufactures of flax	63,647	98,658	27,984
Miscellaneous dry goods	20,912	73,081	53,776
Total	$339,647	$884,739	$244,803
Add entered for consumption	2,306,589	1,801,799	3,364,210
Total entered at the port	$2,646,236	$2,686,538	$3,609,013

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR TEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1st.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$14,103,663	$12,382,696	$13,156,688
Manufactures of cotton	9,334,450	8,677,533	8,294,133
Manufactures of silk	17,873,021	20,515,911	18,337,561
Manufactures of flax	6,722,106	5,434,990	5,194,736
Miscellaneous dry goods	2,315,169	3,282,954	3,654,199
Total	$50,348,409	$50,294,084	$48,627,317

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$1,689,880	$1,766,937	$1,517,239
Manufactures of cotton	1,121,614	1,285,528	1,319,801
Manufactures of silk	1,027,996	1,370,361	1,779,733
Manufactures of flax	394,618	561,144	745,126
Miscellaneous dry goods	127,114	380,185	329,108
Total	$4,361,222	$5,364,155	$5,691,007
Add entered for consumption	50,348,409	50,294,084	48,627,317
Total thrown on the market	$54,709,631	$55,658,239	$54,318,324

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Manufactures of wool	$2,000,339	$2,067,617	$1,185,072
Manufactures of cotton	1,749,238	1,432,335	802,609
Manufactures of silk	1,272,582	2,288,832	1,832,565
Manufactures of flax	663,844	718,765	328,868
Miscellaneous dry goods	121,322	431,756	366,575
Total	$5,807,325	$6,939,316	$4,515,189
Add entered for consumption	50,348,409	50,294,084	48,627,317
Total entered at the port	$56,155,734	$57,233,400	$53,142,506

Notwithstanding the falling off in the imports, there has been as already hinted, but little decline in the revenue, the total receipts at New York for ten months showing a decrease of only about $1,000,000.

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
In October	$2,112 906 29	$1,958.516 17	$2,392.109 57
First quarter	6,996.656 48	9,295.257 30	7,617,887 72
Second quarter	6,033.253 57	7,357.408 30	6,632.425 16
Third quarter	10,190.324 37	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03
Total for 10 months	$25,333,140 71	$28,014,179 07	$26,923,612 48

The export trade has been very animated; the value of domestic produce shipped from New York during the month has largely increased, and from southern ports it is also in advance of last year. The corresponding month of 1850 was very heavy in this item, but no other previous year witnessed so large a total, since 1846.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF OCTOBER.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic produce	$4,561,742	$2,702,382	$3,497,874
Foreign merchandise, free	15,464	106,626	82,886
Foreign merchandise, dutiable	483,038	358,292	484,801
Specie	1,421,328	1,779,707	2,452,301
Total	$6,481,572	$4,947,007	$6,517,862
Total exclusive of specie	5,060,244	3,167,300	4,065,561

This brings the total since January 1st (exclusive of specie,) $694,590 in excess of the same period of last year, and only $3,789,421 below the amount for the first ten months of 1850, which was unusually large.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR TEN MONTHS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Domestic produce	$36,834,842	$34,200,828	$34,239,486
Foreign merchandise, free	495,314	637.527	799,512
Foreign merchandise, dutiable	4,261,237	3,275.027	3,768,974
Specie	7,868,794	33,040,978	23,106,137
Total	$49.460,187	$71,154,360	$61,914,109
Total, exclusive of specie	41,591,393	38,113,382	38,807,972

The exports of specie are already $10,000,000 less than for the same period of last year, and this difference will be still greater when the year is completed. The shipments of specie from New York during November and December of last year amounted to $10,702,231; during these months the current year, they will not reach $3,000,000, so that the total decline in specie shipments for the year, will be about $17,000,000.

We annex a comparative statement of the shipment of some of the leading articles of produce, from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to Nov. 20th:—

	1851.	1852.		1851.	1852.
Ashes—Pots....bbls.	23,467	16,083	Naval Stores... bbls.	326,256	491,146
Pearls.....	1,597	1,088	*Oils*—		
Beeswax.....lbs.	257,567	373,253	Whale..... gals.	1,098,807	46,473
Breadstuffs—			Sperm.....	532,919	718,737
Wheat flour.. bbls.	1,166,466	1,226,298	Lard.....	206,222	25,044
Rye flour	7,457	8,209	Linseed.....	6,541	11,858
Corn meal.....	35,049	41,906	*Provisions*—		
Wheat... .. bush.	1,192,052	2,678,451	Pork .....bbls.	42,532	35,227
Rye.....	6,852	236,460	Beef.....	30,907	41,343
Oats	3,482	9,741	Cut meats.....lbs.	2,920,968	1,456,224
Barley	. ....	367	Butter.....	2,026,163	594,390
Corn	1,584,348	745,180	Cheese	6,705,832	940,085
Candles—Mould. bxs.	33,633	52,709	Lard	5,855,334	4,245,382
Sperm.....	3,169	3,651	Rice.....tcs.	24,914	23,843
Coal.....tons	9,432	36,260	Tallow..... lbs.	2,207,796	386,205
Cotton.....bales	263,542	312,075	Tobacco—Crude.pkgs.	16,645	22,728
Hay.....	6,420	7,032	Manu'ed.lbs.	3,339,086	4,104,126
Hops.....	248	602	Whalebone.....	1,799,390	923,930

The above shows a very large increase in the export trade, which has been particularly active during the month of November. There has been a general advance in the prices of all species of provisions, and the general tendency in most is still upward. Rents of dwelling houses have risen in almost every thickly settled locality, and in New York and adjacent cities this advance is equal to nearly 25 per cent. Cotton, woolen, and silk goods, have also advanced, so that the expenses of living have largely increased. This bears with peculiar hardship on persons with a small salary, or with a moderate fixed income from any source, and is attracting serious attention from the industrial classes. The increased demand for our produce abroad, has given great activity to freights, and prices have ruled higher than for many years. The diversion of a large portion of British and other foreign tonnage to the Australian and East India trade, has given domestic ship owners an unusual advantage. It is computed that not less than 400,000 tons of extra shipping have cleared from British ports for Australia since the excitement commenced there, and no inconsiderable portion of this has been drawn from the direct trade between our ports and British home and provincial markets. What changes may be wrought during the coming year by the turn which has thus been given to Commerce, it is of course impossible to predict; but the new elements which have thus far appeared, have tended greatly to strengthen our commercial prosperity.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON.

The Savannah *Republican* estimates the supply of cotton for 1852 as follows:—

Crop of the Southern States ..... bales	3,015,000
Crop of Pernambuco, Aracati, and Ceara, about	75,000
Crop of Bahia and Macelo, about	40,000
Crop of Maranham	30,000
Crop of Demerara, Berbice, etc., about	1,000
Crop of West Indies, about	7,000
Crop of Egypt, about	135,000
Crop of East Indies, about	125,000
Crop of all other places, about	24,000
Making the crop of 1852 about	3,448,000

To which add stock on hand January 1, 1852, viz.:—

Liverpool	425,000
Havre	23,000
United States	128,000
And we have the total supply of cotton for 1852, about	4,024,000

This crop of 1852 was thus distributed:—

United States home consumption	603,000
United States exports to England	1,668,749
United States exports to France	421,375
United States exports to North of Europe	168,875
United States exports to other foreign ports	184,647
Imports from other countries into England, about	375,000
Imports from other countries into France	25,000
Consumed at other places	1,354
Total	3,448,000

The increase in the supply of cotton for the year ending on the 1st of September last, the *Republican* estimates at 660,000 bales, as compared with that of the preceding year, and then proceeds to show that the consumption has been fully commensurate with the increased production. It elucidates its position thus:—

Stock, 1st September, 1852, in the United States ..... bales	91,000
Stock, 1st September, 1852, in England	617,400
Stock, 1st September, 1852, in France	63,000
Total stock on hand	771,400
Deduct increase of last over the previous crop of the South	660,000
And it would leave a stock of only	111,400

Against a stock of between 700,000 and 800,000 bales on the 1st September, 1851, thus showing that the increased product has been all taken up.

The average weekly deliveries for consumption for 1852, are estimated at:—

In the United States ..... bales	11,595
In Great Britain	38,500
In France	8,750
To the North of Europe, Germany, etc	10,550
To other foreign consumers	3,550
Making the weekly consumption	72,945

Showing a consumption of 3,793,140 bales for the year. On these premises the *Republican* concludes that—

If our estimates of the weekly deliveries of cotton for consumption be near the truth, and the present rate of consumption is not checked, it appears that the demands of Commerce require a crop this year of nearly 3,800,000 bales. This amount of the raw material must be produced, otherwise the stock remaining over from the last crop will be consumed. The supply this year will, in all probability, not be greater than it was the last. It is not anticipated that the supply from foreign production will exceed that of last season, say about 450,000 bales. Is it probable that the present crop of the Southern States will go beyond 3,000,000 bales? If not, and we estimate the supply of the raw material from all quarters the same as that last year, and consumption should continue at the same rate, it would result as follows:—

Estimated production of cotton in the world.....bales	3,450,000
Estimated stock, September 1st, 1852.....	771,400
Total supply for 1853	4,221,400
Probable consumption at present rates.....	3,793,000
Leaving a stock of.....	428,400

Thus it appears that, even allowing the supply from all quarters to reach the maximum of 4,225,000 bales at the present rate of consumption, there would only be a stock of 418,400 bales left of it at the close of the next cotton season, being 310,000 bales less than the stock on hand 1st September last.

EXPORT OF LEATHER, BOOTS, AND SHOES FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The subjoined statement of the export of leather, boots, and shoes, the product of the United States for the year ending June 30th, 1851, is compiled from the official returns of the Treasury Department:—

Whither exported.	Leather, lbs.	Boots, pairs.	Shoes, pairs.	Value.
Sweden and Norway.....	1,508	....	....	$226
Swedish West Indies.....	1,379	....	96	287
Danish West Indies.....	17,856	12	6,328	7,759
Dutch West Indies	9,160	25	259	1,675
England	12,680	....	....	2,381
Malta	.....	175	....	200
Honduras.....	7,497	86	5,048	5,569
British Guiana.....	....	....	250	227
British West Indies.....	2,335	1,387	13,236	12,358
Canada	29,252	13,472	33,481	109,109
British American Colonies	86,048	6,704	36,025	68,021
French West Indies.....	317	....	....	47
Cuba.....	16,864	62	1,552	4,607
Cape de Verd Islands.....	....	....	303	370
Turkey, Levant, etc.....	....	....	220	150
Hayti	6,414	22	3,928	4,382
Mexico.....	....	....	1,389	1,219
Central Republic of America.....	2,132	1,224	2,665	4,948
New Grenada.....	4,329	39,611	60,016	174,149
Venezuela.....	8,673	....	1,160	2,964
Brazil.....	2,911	....	800	1,215
Argentine Republic.....	....	1,817	6,198	6,619
Chili.....	4,120	1,652	7,164	9,575
China.....	....	100	....	400
South America generally	....	....	1,200	900
Africa generally.....	....	740	2,655	3,209
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	9,201	10,389	21,125	36,272
Total.....	222,676	77,478	205,198	$458,838

The importation of boots and shoes—exclusive of India rubber, valued at $23,161—as compiled for the year ending June 30, 1851, was $50,600. Exports of boots

and shoes of American manufacture, during same period, $458,638—leaving a balance of $408,238 in favor of exports. From this balance should be deducted the value of 222,676 lbs. of leather exported, at 15 cents per lb, equal to $33,401 40, included in the aggregate value, and we have still a balance in favor of exports of $374,836 60.

VIRGINIA TOBACCO TRADE, 1851-52.

[FURNISHED BY A CORRESPONDENT OF THE "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE," RICHMOND, VA.]

Stock on hand and on ship-board, Oct. 1, 1851.....hhds.		14,353	
Inspected the year ending Sept. 30, 1852		51,806	
			66,159
Exported to foreign ports.....		13,771	
Stock on hand and in transit inland, Sept. 30, 1852..	13,285		
Afloat for export.....	250		
		13,535	
			27,306
Manufactured and shipped coastwise.....			38,853

An unusually small quantity was shipped coastwise, and there was a very large increase in the quantity manufactured. Exclusive of that embraced in the 38,853 hhds., there was received from Roanoke 33,000 boxes, manufactured from uninspected tobacco, and loose tobacco equal to 4,000 hhds., or more, was probably received and manufactured in the several markets of Virginia.

PARTICULARS OF INSPECTION.

	1851.	1852.
Richmond.....	15,678	24,119
Pittsburg.....	7,220	10,489
Lynchburg.....	5,810	10,700
Clarksville.....	2,141	4,001
Farmville	1,425	2,255
All other.....	324	242
Total.....	32,598	51,806

PARTICULARS OF EXPORTS.

	Hhds.	Skins.		Hhds.	Skins.
Great Britain.....	5,416	....	Belgium.....	430	....
France	3,558	....	Holland.....	1,025	240
Italy.....	1,910	....	Bremen	1,432	4,779
Total.....				13,771	5,019

EXPORTS OF FLOUR FROM JAMES RIVER TO FOREIGN PORTS AND CALIFORNIA, OCTOBER 1, 1851 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1852.

To Great Britain.....	6,475	To South America	58,950
British N. A. Colonies	5,650	Australia.....	4,650
Bremen	475	San Francisco.....	13,650

ADVANCE IN THE PRICE OF SPERM AND WHALE OILS.

The recent rapid advance in our oil market has been attended, step by step, with a corresponding advance in every department of the oil business. Every description has exhibited an upward tendency, until the subject has become of universal interest throughout the country. Whale oil has reached a price never before attained, while sperm continues high. This naturally affects, as we have said, lard oil, all substitutes for burning purposes, and generally every description of oil.

Although many consider this advance to be caused by speculative operations, we have our reasons for thinking otherwise, nor do we anticipate any immediate decline —certainly not during the present year. This opinion we arrive at from the present state of stocks, importations and supplies. The advance in whale oil is unquestion-

ably the prominent point in the subject to be considered. Its advance has of course been altogether without precedent. Yet from causes precisely similar, sperm oil, in 1839–9, rose (from September, 1838, to April, 1839) from 85 to 112½ cents. This was doubtless caused by well grounded anticipations of a deficiency in the supply. We will now glance at the present position of the same matter.

Estimated import of sperm and whale oil this year.....bbls.	155,000
Import of sperm and whale oil in 1851.....	428,000
Average import of sperm and whale for ten years past	372,200
Falling off this year, as compared with 1851.....	273,000
Falling off this year as compared with ten years past.....	217,000

We have here united the sperm and whale oil importations from the fact that within a few years the latter has quite taken the place of former for burning purposes.

Now take the average consumption of both descriptions in this country for a period of seven years. It is as follows:—

Sperm oil, average consumption seven years.....bbls.	90,000
Whale oil, do.....	186,000
Add average exports sperm for seven years.....	22,000
Add average exports whale for seven years.....	82,000
Total demand.....	380,000

For a further understanding of the subject we may mention that the exports of sperm varied during the time included, from 7,000 to 33,000 bbls., and of whale from 46,000 to 143,000 bbls. It will be seen, then, at a glance, that the importations during the present year do not come up to within half the average demand for years past. Upon the back of this comes the falling off of the hog crop, occasioned both by the large emigration to California, the high price of corn, and other causes. There is thus a falling off in the quantity of lard oil manufactured. A review of the New Orleans market exhibits this conclusively. The export of lard thence to domestic and foreign ports has been as follows:—

In 1849.....barrels		249,938
1850.....		310,969
1851.....		147,791

The supply this year, from present appearances, will hardly exceed that of 1851.

The anticipated deficiency in the market for domestic purposes has already caused reimportations of whale oil from Europe, and we hear already of the return of 2,500 bbls. shipped thither in 1851.

Beyond the present year conjecture is useless. The average catch by the North Pacific fleet of 137 vessels, in 1851, was 633 bbls., or an aggregate of 86,721 bbls. The fleet this year consists of 271 ships, belonging to the following ports:—

New Bedford.....	144
Fairhaven.....	20
Mattapoisett, Falmouth, San Francisco, each.....	2
Dartmouth, Wareham, Westport, Newport, Providence, each	1
Edgartown, Holmes's Hole, Warren.....	3
Nantucket.....	7
Greenport.....	7
New London.....	33
Stonington	16
Mystic.....	6
Cold Spring	5
Sagharbor.....	11

It is useless to speculate upon what this large fleet may or may not do, but we think we have already said enough to show that the present state of the market may be attributed to sound, natural and healthy causes.—*New Bedford Shipping List.*

THE BUTTER TRADE OF CINCINNATI.

CINCINNATI, as we learn from the *Price Current* of that city, has become the great distributing point for Butter and Cheese for the South and South-West. As the pop-

ulation supplied from that point extends, we find, says the *Price Current*, the demand for these products increasing, and Cincinnati is now exporting nearly as much butter as is received by public conveyances, so that Cincinnati consumers are dependent upon private conveyances for their supplies. In order to show the extent and value of the butter trade, the *Price Current* gives the subjoined statement of the imports and exports at Cincinnati for the last seven years, as follows:—

Years.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Bbls.	Kegs.	Bbls.	Kegs.
1845–46	3,339	6,841	1,624	20,390
1846–47	6,345	7,090	1,348	3,194
1847–48	6,625	6,405	2,937	28,315
1848–49	7,721	7,999	1,272	24,396
1849–50	3,674	7,487	964	24,393
1850–51	8,259	11,043	3,258	36,185
1851–52	10,203	13,720	3,006	31,395

During the year ending September 1st, 1852, the receipts and exports were about as follows, in pounds:—

Imports	3,412,600
Exports	2,321,250
Excess of imports	1,091,350

The consumption of Cincinnati and vicinity is not much, if any, less than four million pounds per annum; and if this estimate is correct, the receipts by private conveyances are about three million pounds—making six-and-a-half million pounds as the yearly supply from all sources. This quantity, at fifteen cents per pound, by which we think it is fair to compute the value, as all butter sold at retail commands from fifteen to thirty cents per pound, and the wholesale price is very often fifteen cents and upwards, would amount to $975,000.

PRICES OF TOBACCO IN NEW ORLEANS.

The *New Orleans Price Current* gives the subjoined table of the prices of Tobacco at New Orleans about the middle of the months of April and October, in each of the years from 1822 to 1852, inclusive. In the *Merchants' Magazine* for November, 1852, (vol. xxvii., pages 546–556,) we gave in an article on "Tobacco, and the Tobacco Trade," very complete statistical tables of the production, exports, &c., of tobacco for a series of years—

QUOTATIONS FOR TOBACCO AT NEW ORLEANS ABOUT THE MIDDLE OF THE MONTHS OF APRIL AND OCTOBER IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS.

Years.	April.	October.	Years.	April.	October.
1822	.. a ..	1½ a 3½	1838	3 a 7½	5½ a 9½
1823	1½ a 3½	2 a 3½	1839	8 a 14	8 a 15½
1824	.. a ..	3 a 4½	1840	2½ a 7½	3½ a 9½
1825	4 a 7	5 a 7	1841	4½ a 10	4 a 8
1826	.. a ..	2 a 4	1842	2 a 5½	1½ a 5½
1827	2½ a 4½	2½ a 4½	1843	2 a 5	2½ a 5
1828	2 a 4½	2 a 4	1844	1½ a 5	1½ a 9
1829	3 a 5	3 a 5	1845	1½ a 11	2 a 10
1830	2½ a 4½	2½ a 4½	1846	2 a 11	1½ a 10
1831	2 a 4	2½ a 4½	1847	1½ a 12	1½ a 10
1832	2½ a 4	2 a 4	1848	2 a 12	2½ a 6½
1833	2½ a 4½	3½ a 5½	1849	2½ a 6½	2½ a 8
1834	3½ a 5½	4½ a 6½	1850	4 a 9	5 a 10
1835	5 a 7½	6 a 8½	1851	5 a 12	2½ a 9
1836	5½ a 8½	2½ a 7	1852	3 a 5½	4½ a 8
1837	1½ a 5	1½ a 5½			

THE PORK TRADE OF CINCINNATI.

[FROM THE CINCINNATI PRICE-CURRENT.]

More than any other branch of business connected with the Agricultural industry of the West, the pork trade has contributed to build up and extend the Commerce of our city. A brief reference to its progress will, therefore, be likely to prove interesting to our readers.

Since the production of pork in the west became a matter of much importance to farmers or commercial men, Cincinnati has been the center of operations as regards the *amount* of the business transacted, though for three years past she has been a considerable distance from the *geographical* center, and with each year this distance is increasing, though *practically* our numerous railroad enterprises are diminishing it, and thus the advantages that the natural increase of population has been depriving us of, art and enterprise are replacing. A hundred miles now is, as regards the time or labor necessary to travel it, no more than fifteen miles was ten, or even five years ago. But, whatever may be said with reference to the center of packing operations, it is evident that the producing business is rapidly extending Westward—and although Cincinnati will continue to do a larger business than any other city in the country, the trade must increase greatly at various points in the West.

Before proceeding farther, however, with these remarks, we will give a statement showing the number of hogs packed in this city from 1832-3 to 1851-2, inclusive, covering a period of twenty years, and Cincinnati having been, as already remarked, the center of operations, the extent of the trade here will indicate its progress throughout the West:—

Years.	No.	Years.	No.
1832-33	85,000	1842-43	250,000
1833-34	123,000	1843-44	240,000
1834-35	162,000	1844-45	196,000
1835-36	123,000	1845-46	305,000
1836-37	103,000	1346-47	250,000
1837-38	182,000	1847-48	475,000
1838-39	190,000	1848-49	410,000
1839-40	95,000	1849-50	393,000
1840-41	160,000	1850-51	334,000
1841-42	220,000	1851-52	352,000

It is seen that the number packed for three years past has not varied materially, though, as is well known, there was a great falling off in the whole number packed in the West in 1851-2. As near as can be ascertained, the number of hogs cut in Cincinnati has been equal for four or five years past to one-fifth of the whole number packed in the West, but prior to that time the proportion was considerably greater in favor of this city. This affords good and satisfactory grounds for the belief already expressed, that the trade must increase at points adjacent to the districts of country where hogs can be produced to the best advantage. As railroads are extended the value of lands is increased, and whenever the latter are in this way brought near to market, hogs have been found to be not generally the most profitable product. Consequently, the business of rais ng hogs is extending Westward, and increasing there much more rapidly than the population of those sections of country. In the same directions railroads are being extended, and it is to the latter that we must now look, to some extent; and in a few years to a still greater extent, for a considerable portion of the supplies for this market.

The pork business is a branch of Commerce deemed of such importance, that the merchants of neighboring cities have, for several years past, been exerting themselves to attract the trade from this point, and since railroad communication has been opened with the East, New York has also entered the field, and the pretensions of the latter are decidedly more extravagant than those of our smaller neighbors down the river.

That a large number of hogs will be transported to the East we do not doubt, but we are satisfied that, notwithstanding the railroad facilities, the number that can be forwarded will be little more than sufficient to supply the current demand. It must be remembered that railroads cannot transport an unlimited number of hogs. The New York and Erie Railroad, which is relied upon to supply the New York packers, has, during the summer, been employed to the utmost extent of its accommodations, and yet the number of hogs transported has been no more than equal to the demands

of the citizens of New York for fresh pork; and we are decidedly of the opinion that the same road will not be able to carry very many more in the winter than they have delivered during the summer.

But supposing, and admitting that the immense droves of hogs which pass through our streets could be transferred to the railroad cars, and carried through to New York without delay, the experience of those who have some knowledge of the business satisfies us that Western packed meat can be shipped to New York and sold for less than the first cost of that packed there. In cold weather a considerable portion of hogs shipped from the West would perish during their passage, and we are assured that nothing can be done prevent this. Here, then, would be a heavy loss to encounter in the outset. In addition to this, the hogs would lose a great deal in weight, and we are told that those taken to New York by railroad produce little, or no gut fat. Here is another very heavy loss. Then, again, the expense of doing business in New York is very nearly double what it is here. To offset all these losses, the only advantage the New York packer has is, that a trifle more is obtained for city than Western packed meats; and even this advantage they do not possess over Cincinnati brands.

It has been stated that the offal commands a great deal more in New York that in Cincinnati, but this is not so. There is a market here for everything that is marketable, belonging to the hog. The heads, feet, tails, and hair are sold at very good prices, and for the hair and gut fat our slaughterers pay from 25 to 50 cents for each hog, and do the killing besides.

But the experiment is about to be tried in New York, and of its failure, so far as it is intended to transfer the *winter* packing business from the West to the East, we do not entertain a doubt. In one respect, however, New York will do a business which must affect, to some extent, the Western trade, and it is important that this feature should receive proper attention. We refer to the business that is done during the summer.

There has been a much greater number of hogs shipped to the East this season than in any previous year, and, as a consequence, we will have but few still fatted hogs to commence the season with at this place, while last year some fifty to seventy-five thousand head were cut. The supplies of fresh pork which are thus obtained on the seaboard during the summer cause a great falling off in the consumption of salt meats—and, in calculating for the wants of the East this fact should be taken into consideration. It has had an important effect upon prices this season, and it must so operate in years to come, especially when prices of hogs and their products rule high.

With regard to the tendency of the trade in the West we may remark, that statistics do not show that the business has been attracted, to any extent, from this city. Our information of the business at Louisville, and Madison, extends back only four years; and we give the statistics for those seasons in connection with the business at this place:—

	Cincinnati.	Louisville.	Madison.
1848-49.....	410,000	179,000	91.000
1849-50.....	393,000	184,000	87,000
1850-51.....	334.000	196,000	96,000
1851-52.....	352,000	197,000	97,000

When it is remembered that extra exertions have been made by the merchants of of Louisville and Madison to secure hogs for that market by contracting in the country, and that last season both places had the advantage of railroads—one pasing through the interior of Indiana, and the other into Kentucky, and farther, that fully one-third of the entire products of last year were purchased by Cincinnati dealers, and much of them brought to this market, it must be admitted that the progress made by our neighbors has not been very rapid. This season we are told that heavy contracts have been made for both markets, amounting to more than the entire business of last year; but we have been informed by reliable dealers, in both Madison and Louisville that this statement is not correct. This business of contracting, however, must soon lead to its own end. Most of the contracts this season have been made at high prices, and a great many of them at a figure that could not be realized now, and should prices rule below $5, summer purchasers must loses largely.

Last season hogs ruled 25 cents per 100 lbs. higher here than in any other Western market, owing to the competition among slaughterers, arising from the enhanced value of the offal. That such will be the case again this year is quite probable, and should it be so, hogs will come here as naturally as the rivulet flows to the river.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

CONDENSED EXHIBIT OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1849–50, COMPARED WITH THE CENSUS RETURNS OF 1839–40.

Productions.	1850.	1840.	Increase.	Decrease.
Unimproved land	118,435,178	.....	.....	.....
Improved land	184,596,025	.....	.....	.....
Cash value of farms	3,266,925,537	.....	.....	.....
Value of farming implements	151,605,147	.....	.....	.....
No. of horses	4,325,652	4,385,669	559,953	.....
Asses and mules	569,070			
Milch cows	6,391,946	.....	.....	.....
Working oxen	1,698,261	.....	.....	.....
Other cattle	10,265,080	.....	.....	.....
"Neat cattle," embracing in returns of 1840, the three preceding classes	.....	14,974,586	3,380,711	.....
Sheep	21,621,482	19,311,374	2,310,106	.....
Swine	30,315,719	26,301,293	4,014,426	.....
Live stock, value of	543,822,711	.....	.....	.....
Wheat, bushels of	100,479,150	84,823,272	15,655,878	.....
Rye, bushels of	14,188,457	18,645,567	.....	4,457,110
Indian corn, bushels of	592,141,280	377,531,875	214,609,355	.....
Oats, bushels of	146,523,216	123,071,841	23,452,000	.....
Rice, pounds of	215,312,710	80,841,422	134,471,000	.....
Tobacco, pounds of	199,739,746	219,163,319	.....	19,424,000
Ginned cotton, bales of	2,468,625	.....	.....	.....
Wool, pounds of	52,518,143	35,802,114	16,716,000	.....
Peas and beans, bushels of	9,219,642	.....	.....	.....
Irish potatoes, bushels of	65,781,751	108,298,060	.....	4,260,000
Sweet potatoes, bushels of	38,256,811			
Barley, bushels of	5,167,213	4,161,504	1,005,709	.....
Buckwheat, bushels of	8,955,945	7,291,743	1,664,000	.....
Value of orchard produce	7,720,862	.....	.....	.....
Wine, gallons of	221,249	124,734	97,515	.....
Value of produce of market-gardens	5,270,130	2,601,096	2,669,034	.....
Butter, pounds of	312,948,915	.....	.....	.....
Cheese, pounds of	105,539,599	.....	.....	.....
Value of "dairy produce," equivalent to butter and cheese in 1840	.....	33,787,008	.....	.....
Hay, tons of	12,839,141	10,218,108	2,621,000	.....
Clover-seed, bushels of	467,983	.....	.....	.....
Other grass-seeds, bushels of	413,154	.....	.....	.....
Hops, pounds of	3,467,514	1,238,502	2,229,000	.....
Hemp, dew-rotted, tons of	63,588	.....	.....	.....
Hemp, water-rotted, tons of	25,380	.....	.....	.....
Flax, pounds of	13,391,415	.....	.....	.....
Flax and hemp, tons of, 1840	.....	95,251	412	.....
Flaxseed, bushels of	562,810	.....	.....	.....
Silk cocoons, pounds of	14,763	61,552	.....	46,489
Maple sugar, pounds of	33,980,457	155,110,809	126,547,646	.....
Cane sugar, pounds of	247,778,000			
Molasses, gallons of	12,876,574	.....	.....	.....
Beeswax and honey, pounds of	14,850,627	.....	.....	.....
Value of home-made manufactures	27,478,931	29,043,880	1,565,000	.....
Value of animals slaughtered	119,475,020	.....	.....	.....

THE TRADE AND REVENUE OF IRELAND.

A series of returns, furnished by the Treasury Chambers, and ordered to be printed by the British House of Commons, on the motion of Sir Robert Ferguson, having reference to the revenue, expenditure, imports, and exports of Ireland, during the year 1851, have been printed. It appears that the net produce of the Irish revenue paid into the exchequer in the year ended the 5th of January, 1852, was £4,000,681 17 4. This amount was contributed from the following sources:—

Customs	£1,854,268
Excise	348,911
Stamps	451,534
Post-office	5,000
Small branches for the hereditary revenue	300
Miscellaneous, including repayment of advances	340,667

The money remaining in the Exchequer at the commencement of the years was £621,891, and if this sum be added to the net produce, it would make the income for the year £4,622,572. The expenditure during the year amounted to £3,847,134, leaving a balance in the Exchequer on January 5, 1852, of £775,434 18 1. The expenditure for the year is thus made up:—

Dividends, interest, and management of public debt	£1,394,097
Other payments out of the consolidated fund	854,272
Payments on account of grants of parliament for the army	585,000
Miscellaneous grants of parliament	611,382
Money advanced out of the consolidated fund for public objects	300,493

Although the gross expenditure is stated at £3,847,134, the real expenditure was only £3,745,245, as a sum of £101,888, remitted through the customs and excise, to the Exchequer in England is, by a curious mode of calculation, charged as an item of "expenditure." The account, however, does not include the whole expenditure of the United Kingdom on account of Ireland; but, on the other hand, the receipts from the crown lands in Ireland are brought into the general account of the Commissioners of Woods, &c., and do not appear as part of the income of Ireland. The amounts received from rents and other sources of land revenue in Ireland in 1851 was £62,776 16s. 5d., but the return does not state what is the amount expended by the United Kingdom on account of Ireland against which the sum of £62,776 is a set off. The largest excise collections in Ireland appear to be those of Dublin, Belfast, Cork, and Droheda, and the ports in which the greatest amount of customs duties paid are Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Limerick, Londonderry, and Waterford. There is a small "port," called Strangford, where the customs duties collected during the first year amounted to only £141. It appears by returns furnished by the Inspector-General of Imports and Exports that there was retained for home consumption in Ireland in 1851:—

Wine	gallons	499,181
Foreign spirits		202,498
Whisky, home-made		7,550,518
Tobacco	pounds	4,457,980
Tea		6,573,278
Coffee		684,873
Sugar	cwt.	467,701
Flaxseed and linseed	bushels	333,412
Cotton wool	pounds	5,138
Raw and thrown silk		1,393
Unwrought iron	tons	7
Timber, in logs	loads	78,175
Timber, sawn or split		75,776

The consumption of coals cannot be exhibited, the coasting duty on that article having been discontinued since 1830. The view which this statement affords of the consumption of imported commodities into Ireland is, to a certain extent, defective, inasmuch as the coasting regulations by which the cross channel trade has been governed since the year 1825, prevent the keeping of any record of goods imported duty free from Great Britain, either in the case of British productions or of foreign merchandise

upon which the duty has already been paid in a British port. The exports of Irish productions and manufactures during the last year, as compared with former periods, exhibit a very great decrease, owing in great part to the failure of the potato crop, and also to the depopulation of the country. The exports of live animals and provisions to foreign parts has almost wholly fallen off, while the returns of the exports to Great Britain present a similar result. The total quantity of Irish spirits exported to foreign countries within the last year was only 8,687 gallons, while of linen manufactures, 50,964 yards only were exported. Of cotton manufactures the imports were 191,066 yards. The quantities of provisions (live and dead) exported to Great Britain within the year was as follows:—

Oxen, bulls, and cows	182,760
Calves	2,474
Sheep	151,807
Swine	106,162
Wheat and flour....quarters	95,116
Oats and oatmeal	1,141,976

The stamp duties collected in Dublin amounted to £350,308 14 3, whilst all the other stamp districts put together did not contribute much more than one third of that sum.

RECEIPTS OF PRODUCE BY THE NEW CANAL AT NEW ORLEANS.

The subjoined statement of produce received in the New Basin, for the year ending August 31st, 1852, is derived from a statement furnished the *New Orleans Price Current* by Captain JAMES STOCKTON:—

Cotton....bales	40,650	Tobacco, leaf....boxes	844
Lumber, yellow pine and cypress....feet	30,570,000	Merchandise	53
Wood, oak, ash, and pine.c'ds	28,206	Moss....bales	30
Bricks	19,329,000	Cotton-seed....bags	14
Sand....bbls.	194,850	Wool	6
Shells	27,000	Sugar....hhds.	870
Charcoal	114,360	Molasses....bbls.	893
Tar	1,872	Fish	130
Tar....kegs	12,066	Camphene	10
Shingles	1,844,000	Knees, white and live oak	1,165
Laths	5,090,000	Pickets	13,000
Staves	150,000	Clap-boards	165,000
Sash and doors....pairs	13,900	Gunny-bags....bales	265
Spirits turpentine....bbls.	2,408	Horned cattle	123
Rosin	11,715	Paper....bundles	110
Salt....sacks	33,763	Barrels, empty	1,150
Cotton gins	319	Rags....bales	4
Hides	3,024	Mahogany....logs	20
Corn-mills	19	Deer skins....bales	16
Domestics....bales	1,478	Almonds....sacks	35
Sheep skins	4	Bottles, empty....casks	17
Hay	20	White oak bark....cords	35
Buckets....dozen	1,006	Cedar logs	240
		Turpentine, raw....bbls.	73

SHIPMENTS OF BRANDY FROM CHARENTE TO GREAT BRITAIN.

We compile from an official source the following statement of the shipments of Brandy from the port of Charente (France) to Great Britain, in each of the years from 1843 to 1851, inclusive:—

1843 puncheons	18,316	1846 puncheons	18,464	1849 puncheons	25,787
1844	14,863	1847	22,890	1850	33,319
1845	15,628	1848	20,462	1851	26,863

Showing a total of 192,932 puncheons shipped in nine years. In the above table,

two hogsheads, four quarter-casks, or fifteen cases (of all sizes) are received as one puncheon. The above shipments were made by twenty-five firms. Martell & Co., Hennessy & Co., Otard, Dupuy & Co., and the United Vineyard Proprietors Company, were the four heaviest shippers, exporting more than the other twenty-one houses combined.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

POSTAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND PRUSSIA.

The following are the rates of postage established by a convention just concluded between the United States and Prussia.

We are authorized to say that the first closed mail to Prussia will be dispatched from New York by the United States steamship Baltic, on the 30th inst.

RATES ON LETTERS—PRE-PAYMENT OPTIONAL, BEING THE FULL POSTAGE.

German-Austrian Postal Union States of, viz.:—Prussia, all other German States, and the whole Austrian Empire, by the Prussian closed mail, via London and Ostend ..... cents 30

ON NEWSPAPERS—SIX CENTS EACH.

Pre-payment required both in the United States and Germany, being the full postage. Therefore, newspapers received in the Prussian closed mail (unlike those in the British, French, Bremen, and other foreign mails,) will be delivered without further charge. Newspapers sent in the Prussian closed mail to the German-Austrian Postal Union, should be marked "Paid all."

ON LETTERS—PRE-PAYMENT OPTIONAL, BEING THE FULL POSTAGE.

Alexandria, (by Prussian closed mail ..... cents	38	Ionian Islands	37
Beyrout	40	Larnaca	40
Candia	30	Modena	33
Cesme	40	Mytilene	46
China, except Hong Kong, via Trieste	62	Norway	48
Constantinople	40	Parma	33
Dardanelles, the	40	Poland	37
Denmark	37	Rhodes	40
East Indies, English possessions in, via Trieste	38	Russia	37
East Indies, all other countries in and beyond the East Indies, via Trieste	70	Salonica	40
Galatz	40	Samsum	40
Gallipoli	40	Smyrna	40
Greece	42	Sweden	42
Hong Kong, via Trieste	38	Switzerland	35
Ibraila	40	Tenedos	40
		Trebizonde	40
		Tuloza	40
		Tuscany	35
		Varna	40

PRE-PAYMENT REQUIRED, BEING THE UNITED STATES AND PRUSSIAN POSTAGE ONLY.

Egypt, except Alexandria ..... cents 30

Italian States, not belonging to Austria, except Modena, Parma, and Tuscany. 30
Lumbardy and Venice are parts of the Austrian Empire.

Turkey, Wallachia, Moldavia, Servia, Levante, and Turkish Islands in the Mediterranean, except Constantinople, Beyrout, Larnaca, Rhodes, Cesme, Smyrna, Tenedos, Mytilene, Salonica, Dardanelles, Gallipoli, Samsum, Trebizonde, Varna, Tuloza, Candia, Galatz, and Ibraila 30

ON NEWSPAPERS—SIX CENTS EACH.

Pre-payment required, being the United States and Prussian postage only.

SIGNALS FOR SHIPS ORDERED BY SWEDEN.

The following translation of a Royal Ordinance of the Swedish Government, concerning ship lantern signals, has recently been officially communicated to the Department of State at Washington:—

ROYAL ORDINANCE CONCERNING SHIP LANTERN SIGNALS WITH WHICH ALL VESSELS, STEAM OR OTHER, MUST BE PROVIDED WHILE EITHER AT SEA OR IN FOREIGN WATERS. GIVEN AT THE PALACE OF STOCKHOLM, THE 25TH AUGUST, 1852.

We, Oscar, by the grace of God, king of Sweden and Norway, and of the Goths and Wendes, do hereby make known that the Government of Great Britain having expressed the desire that Swedish vessels, in order to avoid collisions at sea, should be ordered to adopt the manner prescribed for English vessels to determine their respective positions—namely, by means of colored or white lights—we have judged proper, after consulting the Department of the Marine, to issue the following directions, which shall be in force on and after the 1st of January next:—

1st. All Swedish steamers at sea, in roadsteads, rivers and canals, harbors and bays, shall carry, from sunset to sunrise, lanterns of the description, and in the manner hereinafter described:—

When under way—A lantern with a white light at the foretop, a lantern with a green light on the starbord side, and a lantern with a red light on the larboard side.

The foretop light, which should be visible at the distance of at least five miles (minutes) in a dark but clear night, shall be so constructed as to throw a uniform and fixed light upon a portion of the horizon comprised within twenty points of the compass; ten points on each side of the ship—namely, from forward to two points abaft the beam, on either side.

The side lights, which in a dark but clear night should be visible at a distance of at least two miles (minutes) shall be so arranged as to throw a uniform unbroken light upon an arc of the horizon equal to ten points of the compass—namely, from forwards to two points abaft the beam. Green on the starboard and red on the larboard side.

Each of the side lanterns must be furnished with a screen (inboard) at least three feet long, in order to prevent the lights from being seen across the bow, (literally "from crossing forward on the bow.")

When at anchor—A lantern with a light of ordinary power.

2d. All sailing vessels, at home or abroad, from sunset to sunrise, when approaching another vessel under sail or in tow, should show a clear light in the way most easily to be seen by the other vessel, and sufficiently soon to avoid a collision.

All sailing vessels at anchor in roads, or in places where vessels pass, shall carry at the masthead, between sunset and sunrise, a lantern with a steady, clear light, except in ports and places where other regulations are in force.

3d. Lanterns used at anchor by both sailing and steam vessels shall be so constructed as to throw a clear and strong light all around the horizon.

4th. It shall be permitted to use any kind of lantern whatever, provided all the foregoing regulations are observed.

Diagrams and further explanations of the above system of signals shall be communicated by the Chamber of Commerce.

During the absence of His Majesty, our Gracious King and Master, the Regency, *ad interim*, of Sweden and Norway.

Signed by G. A. SPARRE, and seventeen other members.

TRIBUNALS OF COMMERCE.

A special committee of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce has prepared a report upon mercantile law reform and the Tribunals of Commerce. For convenience of reference this report has been printed in pamphlet form. The committee, as to Tribunals of Commerce, thus recapitulate the requirements of the trading classes of the country, as may be gathered from the expression of their discontent and deep sense of wrong suffered from the present system of what may be truly termed spoliation with injustice:—

1. "They require that redress of wrong, the recovery of right, and the adjudication of doubtful claims, shall be had as summarily as may be consistent with the ascer-

tainment of the truth, without unnecessary expense, or the interference of useless persons, forms, or formularies.

2. "That a rich man, or an obstinate man, or a dishonest man, shall no longer be enabled, under the color of law, to deny or withhold another man's rights, or to harrass, exhaust, and ruin those who are obliged to enter into litigation with them.

3. "That causes of dispute between man and man shall, at least in the first instance, be referred to authoritative judges, who, by habit or experience, are most competent to understand the subject."

The leading principles which are essential to be preserved in any new arrangements are thus epitomized:—

1. "The establishment of permanent and local courts, with compulsory powers within towns and districts of certain extent, for the adjudication of mercantile disputes occurring within their respective jurisdictions.

2. "The judges to consist of mercantile men, bankers, and traders of unblemished character, of a certain age, assisted by lawyers of certain standing.

3. "The courts to have the powers common to all properly-constituted tribunals, such as power to appoint their own officers, to regulate their own proceedings, to compel appearance, to commit for contempt, and to enforce judgment.

4. "The procedure to be conducted informally, according to the principles of known law, and in equitable conformity to mercantile usage.

5. "The courts to have power to suspend or adjourn the hearing of a cause, for the purpose of obtaining further evidence or information.

6. "Also to have power to refer questions of law to the higher courts, and questions of accounts, or of particular trade practices and technicalities, to parties conversant therein.

7. "The courts to have power to inflict fines for vexatious suits or defenses.

8. "The disputants to have the option of pleading in person or by proxy.

9. "Judgments under a certain amount, on sufficient cause shown, to be referred back to the courts for review; above a certain amount to be taken by appeal, if so desired, to the higher tribunals.

10. "These courts to have cognizance of bankruptcies and insolvent estates."

METHOD OF PUTTING UP PRODUCE FOR MARKET.

Messrs. W. F. Harris & Co., Commission Merchants of Macon, Georgia, who have had some experience in the Southern Market, have issued a circular containing some valuable suggestions to the growers of produce, which, if improved, may enable farmers and shippers to obtain better prices for their products. We publish the circular for the information of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* in the Southern and Western States.

Heretofore the *rude manner* of putting up produce for market, and then the want of *speedy conveyance* to market, have operated much against the interests of shippers. But as the railroads have penetrated further into the heart of the produce section, and as these roads are more extensively equipped, the strong probability is, that henceforth there will not be detention or difficulty in reaching market, at any season of the year.

Middle and Southern Georgia, will always, more or less, need the products of Tennessee, and can afford to pay prices for them that will handsomely remunerate the growers for their trouble in producing and *preparing* these products for market. But to realise these fair prices, two things are necessary to be done first on the part of the farmer.

1st. *The article itself must be of the best quality.*

2d. *The article, whatever it may be, must be put up in the very best manner, in order to be presented for sale in market, in good condition.*

Supposing that every farmer or shipper will select only the best articles, we offer some directions as to preparing them for safe transportation, and preserving them in *good order*.

A few of the leading articles may suffice.

Apples.—Apples should be well selected, free from bruises and rotten specks, and shipped in barrels perforated with auger holes, so that the air may pass through. The same remark as to the *manner of shipping*, applies to Irish Potatoes and Onions, all of which should be shipped, at intervals, from September until June.

Georgia pays thousands of dollars to New York and New England annually, for these three articles, while Tennessee can furnish *better qualities* of the same, for the same prices.

Dried Fruit.—Both apples and peaches should be pealed, well dried, and sent to market in barrels, as green apples.

Cabbages—Should be sent in crates.

Bacon.—It is unquestionably the right policy to send bacon to market rather than live hogs, because it will pay the farmer more money, if properly managed.

To make merchantable bacon, the hogs should be well fattened on corn, and after killing, well trimmed, salted, thoroughly smoked, and cured *dry* before boxing for market. Hams and shoulders should be trimmed after the Baltimore style; that is the shoulders nearly square, and the hams rounded at the top; not forgetting to cut off the legs just above the knee joints, and the tail from the ham. Sides should be free from backbone. Clear sides are worth one cent per pound more than the ribbed side. It need not be added that there is, in trimming and curing the same quality of pork, a difference of from two to four cents per pound. The *more neatly* bacon is trimmed, *the better will be the price.*

Lard.—The better plan is to assort the lard, keeping the leaf from the entrail lard, and send it to market in neat cans, containing from 100 to 200 lbs. Nice cans of 100 lbs. will usually bring one cent more per lb.

Butter.—Butter should be made of rich milk, the milk and water entirely worked out, and the butter packed *firmly* in nice cans, holding from 40 to 60 lbs. Nail kegs old barrels and boxes are not suitable vessels for butter, as is sometimes seen in market.

Beef Hams.—Dried beef hams, well cured, command as *high prices* as bacon, the year round. Let the farmer try this article in the Georgia market.

Beans and Peas. White Beans, well assorted, are much sought for as a diet, and command high prices. The same is true of the White Lady Pea, while there is constant demand for Stock Peas. Let beans and peas be sent in sacks containing two bushels.

Eggs. Let eggs be shipped in barrels, packed in seed oats.

Flour.—With an improvement in the grinding and bolting, and then by packing the flour in nice barrels, bound with flat white oak hoops—branding the barrels neatly—the Tennessee flour might be made to drive all Northern flour from Georgia markets, and thereby Tennessee would receive the ten thousands of dollars that are annually paid to northern markets for the single article of flour. Buckwheat flour sells well in the winter and spring.

Corn Meal.—Let it be ground of strictly white flint corn—previously fanned and free from silks and husks—and bolted and sacked in two-bushel sacks, while cool. Meal intended for shipping to foreign ports, should kiln-dried and packed in barrels; and this would pay if properly undertaken.

Feathers.—Good assorted geese feathers are in demand during the fall, winter, and spring.

Grain.—Wheat, rye, oats, and barley of superior quality will, every year, find a market in the south, and should be sent in two-bushel sacks the latter part of the summer or first of the fall.

Corn.—Corn should be well dried on the ear, and the white separated from the yellow before shelling. When shelled, the silks, husks, nubs of cobs and trash of all kinds, should be separated by fanning in the same manner as wheat is cleaned; and sent to market in two-bushel sacks. Be certain to keep the corn from getting *damp* after it is put up for market.

White flint corn is generally preferred in the southern market, though yellow corn is worth more for exportation.

The consumption of Indian corn being greatly on the increase in Europe, hereafter Tennessee corn will find a market in Liverpool and in Germany. This coming winter and spring it will be shipped hence, so let it be of the best quality, well assorted, that it may gain a good reputation there on first trial. The most expeditious channel to the seaboard is by the way of Savannah, which offers a fine wholesale market, besides many advantages in shipping as it regards safety, dispatch, cheapness of freight, insurance, &c.

Marks.—Let every package be shipped with the mark of a single letter, and let the shipping receipt be sent to the consignee as soon as the produce is shipped.

W. F. Harris & Co.

SHIP BUILDING IN LOUISIANA.

It will be seen by the following act passed by the Louisiana Legislature, that a large bounty is offered for the encouragement of ship building in that State. No State in the Union possesses a greater abundance of ship timber, or timber of superior quality; it is procured easily, and at a small cost. Labor there is not higher than it is in New England, and we think that eastern enterprise would find a substantial reward on the banks of the Mississippi, under the encouragement here presented:—

AN ACT TO ENCOURAGE SHIP BUILDING IN LOUISIANA.

Whereas materials of the best quality for the building of ships, are found in great abundance in this State, and said materials are actually carried to a great distance at great cost, and then converted into ships; and whereas it has been found by experience that the resources of a State may often be developed by the offering of a reward or bonus for the introduction of an art or agricultural product, and whereas it would be highly convenient and profitable to our citizens, to have ships built in Louisiana, and it is believed that this branch of business might be established upon a permanent basis, by giving it a slight encouragement for a limited period, therefore—

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana, in General Assembly convened,* That a reward or bonus is hereby offered, and shall be given by this State to each and every person, or association of persons, whether resident of this State or otherwise, who shall build or complete, or cause to be built and completed within this State, any ship or ships, vessel or vessels, of a tonnage each of more than one hundred tons burden, which reward or bonus shall be five dollars per ton, custom house measurement, for each and every ship or vessel, and for each and every sea-going steamer so built and completed as aforesaid, and four dollars per ton for each and every river or lake steamer so built and completed as aforesaid.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted &c.,* That any person demanding the reward or bonus provided by this act, shall file in the office of the Secretary of State, a certificate signed by the collector of the port, and the builder of any vessel or vessels, which said certificate shall state the name or names of the builder or builders, the name and tonnage of the ship or other vessel, and that said ship or other vessel was wholly built and completed within this State, after the passage of this act; and upon the production of a copy of said certificate, countersigned by the Secretary of State, it shall be the duty of the auditor of public accounts to give to the holder of said certified copy, a warrant upon the treasurer for the amount to which said holder may be entitled under the provisions of this act.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted, &c.,* That this act shall be in force for and during the term of five years from and after its passage.

Approved March 18, 1852.

OF OCEAN POSTAGE.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, October 9, 1852.

The attention of collectors and other officers of the customs is called to the subjoined provisions of the 5th section of the "Act to establish certain post-roads and for other purposes," approved August 31st, 1852.

The instructions of the 10th August, 1829, being applicable under the law of 3d March, 1825, as modified by the act of 30th of August last, are annexed, and will continue to be faithfully observed and enforced by officers of the customs. It will be seen that the act of the 31st of August last, requires all letters on board a vessel arriving within a port or collection district of the United States, to be delivered at the post-office at or nearest said port or place of arrival, before the vessel is allowed to break bulk or make entry.

The 1st section of the act of 3d March, 1825, excepts from this requirement, letters addressed to the owner or consignee of the vessel. That exception is no longer in force, and *all* letters must be delivered at the post-office as required, except such as the customs officer, on well grounded suspicion, may deem it his duty to seize, as hereinafter prescribed. The provision imposing a penalty of one hundred dollars on the master or commander of the vessel, which breaks bulk before the due delivery of the letters at the post-office, is unrepealed and will be rigidly enforced. The oath, in the

form prescribed in the 5th section of the act of 21st August last, will be required in all cases to be taken before the collector, or other chief officer of the customs, at the port, before the vessel will be permitted to break bulk or to be entered.

It will be seen that the collector and other officers of the customs are authorized, without special instructions, to examine and search every vessel for letters which may be on board, or have been carried and transported contrary to law; and whenever they have good reason to suspect such violations have been committed, they will make such examinations and searches, and if seizures are made, they will retain in their own hands the letters or packages of letters so seized, reporting at once the facts to the Department, and await its instructions.

The provisions of the acts of 1825 and 1852, are mainly for the security of the post-office revenue, and the seizures therein authorized are for the conveyance of letters contrary to law. Independently of these enactments, officers of the customs are required to protect the customs revenue by searches, examinations and seizures, for the purpose of detecting suspected attempts to introduce foreign merchandise into the United States without the payment of the duties prescribed by law. As letters and packages of letters from foreign countries, may become the channels of such illegal and clandestine importation, searches and seizures, if the facts justify them for such cause, cannot be omitted by officers of the customs. The duties of officers of the customs in that respect, are clearly defined and prescribed in the annexed instructions of the 10th August, 1829, and must be faithfully performed.

It may be proper to add that the penalty for the illegal conveyance of letters, by steamboats or other vessels, is one hundred dollars for each offence, to be paid by the owner of the steamboat or vessel, and fifty dollars by the captain or other person in charge thereof, as prescribed by the 10th section of the Post-Office Act of 3d March, 1845.

THOMAS CORWIN, Secretary of the Treasury.

THE PASSENGERS' ACT OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The new British Passengers' Act Amendment Bill has just gone into force. The former acts, except as to existing liabilities, and except as to an order in council, dated the 6th of October, 1849, are repealed. The act is to extend to every passenger-ship proceeding on any voyage from the United Kingdom to any place out of Europe, and not being within the Mediterranean Sea, and on every colonial voyage stated. The Commissioners of Emigration are to carry the act into execution with the assistance of their officers. There are ninety-one provisions in the statute, and a number of forms to be used. Among the enactments there are several to secure proper accommodation and food for the passengers. Boats are to be carried on board each vessel. Every passenger in a passenger-ship is to be entitled, for at least forty-eight hours next after his arrival at the end of his voyage, to sleep in the ship, and to be provided for and maintained on on board. No passenger in any ship is to be landed without his previous consent at any port or place other than the port or place at which he contracted to land. A certain space on board is to be allowed to each passenger. Rules are to be made and proper order observed.

REDUCTION OF EXPORT DUTY AT TURK'S ISLAND.

GRAND TURK, August 14, 1852.

The Legislative Council of these islands, at the last sessions, passed an ordinance to reduce the export duty on salt from one cent to half a cent per bushel, which will go into effect on the first of January next. This, it is thought, will give a new impetus to the trade of this colony in its great staple, salt, in addition to that which the completion of the light-house at the north point of Grand Turk will give. The President of the Turk's and Caicos Islands has informed the American Consul here that the light-house is to be lighted on the first of October, and that "all steam vessels, without exception, touching here, will be exempted from light dues, pilotage, or other port charges." Salt is abundant at nine cents, and will not be lower, but is not likely to be higher for at least two months to come, unless heavy rains should ensue or the demand for salt be very great.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CAPITAL AND DIVIDENDS OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

We give below a tabular statement of the capital of each bank in the city of New York, together with the dividends for 1851 and 1852, that is, the first semi-annual dividend of 1851, and the first and second semi-annual dividends of 1852. The charters of the City and the Butchers and Drovers' Banks expired this year, (1852,) deducting the extra dividends paid by them in consequence, the banks divide $1,528,186, or an average of 4.31 per cent. For a statement of the location, discount-days, and dividend months, &c., see *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1852, (vol. xxvii., page 223 :—)

		FOR FIRST HALF OF THE YEAR.					
		1851.		1852.		1852.	
Banks.	Capital.	1st div.	Amount.	1st div.	Amount.	2d div.	Amount.
American Exchange..	$1,500,000	5	$75,000	5	$75,000	5	$75,000
Bank of America	2,001,200	4	80,048	4	80,048	4	80,048
Bank of Commerce...	4,995,980	4	183,956	4	183,950	4	183,956
Bank of New York...	1,000,000	4	40,000	5	50,000	5	50,000
Bank of N. America..	1,000,000	new	.....	3½	35,000	3½	35,000
Bank of the Republic.	1,266,350	new	.....	3½	35,000	3½	35,000
Bank of State N. Y...	2,000,000	4	80,000	4	80,000	4	80,000
Bowery.....	356,650	4	17,266	4	17,266	4	17,266
Broadway..... ..	600,000	4	20,000	4	20,000	14	20,000
Butchers & Drovers' ..	500,000	5	25,000	10	50,000	10	50,000
Chatham	400,000	new	.....	4	12,000	4	12,000
Chemical	300,000	6	18,000	6	18,000	6	18,000
Citizen's.....	350,000	new	.....	4	15,000	4	14,000
City.....	800,000	5	36,000	5	36,000	45	324,000
Empire City	106,070	new	.....	.	.....	.	.....
Fulton.....	600,000	5	30,000	5	30,000	5	30,000
Greenwich	200,000	5	10,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
Grocers'	300,000	new	.....	.	.....	.	.....
Hanover.....	998,300	new	.....	3½	17,500	4	39,972
Irving	300,000	new	.....	3½	10,500	3½	10,500
Knickerbocker	300,000	new	.....	.	.....	.	.....
Leather Manufacturers'	600,000	4	24,000	4	24,000	5	30,000
Manhattan.....	2,050,000	4	82,000	4	82,000	4	82,000
Mechanics'.....	1,440,000	5	72,000	5	72,000	5	72,000
Mec. B'king Associa'on	632,000	4	25,280	4	25,280	4	25,280
Mec. & Tradesmens'..	200,000	5	12,000	6	12,000	6	12,000
Mercantile..... ..	600,000	new	.....	5	30,000	5	30,000
Merchants'	1,490,000	5	74,500	5	14,500	5	74,500
Merchants' Exchange..	1,235,000	5	61,750	4	49,409	4	49,400
Metropolitan.....	2,000,000	new	.....	.	.....	4	80,000
National...	750,000	5	37,500	5	37,500	5	37,500
N. Y. Dry Dock.....	200,000	5	10,000	5	10,000	5	10,000
N. Y. Exchange	130,000	new	.....	4	5,200	4	5,200
North River...	655,000	5	32,250	5	32,250	5	32,250
Ocean.....	1,000,000	5	50,000	4	40,000	5	50,000
Pacific	422,710	4	16,908	4	15,908	4	16,908
People's....	412,500	new	.....	3½	14,406	3½	14,406
Phœnix.....	1,200,000	4	48,000	3	48,000	4½	54,000
Seventh Ward.....	500,000	6½	31,250	6½	31,250	4½	17,000
Tradesmen's.....	400,000	5	20,000	5	20,000	7½	30,000
Union.....	1,000,000	5	50,000	5	50,000	5	50,000
Total.....	36,841,550	4½	1,262,758	4.15	1,459,964	22½	1,857,186

PRODUCTION OF PRECIOUS METALS IN THE WORLD.

The following table will exhibit the annual product of the precious metals at different periods:—

1800.

Countries.	Silver.	Gold.	Total.
America	$32,891,521	$9,000,000	$41,891,521
Europe	4,000,000	1,000,000	5,000,000
Asia	.....	3,188,346	3,188,346
Africa, &c., &c.	400,000	2,050,000	2,450,000
Total	$37,291,521	$15,238,346	$52,529,867

1843.

America	$29,976,453	$9,221,175	$39,197,628
Europe	7,500,000	14,981,115	22,481,115
Asia	800,000	7,000,000	7,800,000
Africa, &c., &c.	500,000	3,000,000	3,500,000
Total	$38,776,453	$34,202,290	$73,678,743

1848.

America	$29,120,000	$9,700,000	$38,820,000
Europe	7,280,000	20,950,000	28,230,000
Asia	4,100,000	12,901,060	17,001,060
Africa, &c., &c.	.....	2,610,000	2,610,000
Total	$40,500,000	$46,161,060	$86,661,060

1851.

America	$30,000,000	$93,000,000	$123,000,000
Europe	7,500,000	21,000,000	28,500,000
Asia	4,500,000	14,500,000	19,000,000
Africa, &c., &c.	.....	3,500,000	3,500,000
Total	$42,000,000	$132,000,000	$174,000,000

The total product of 1852 is estimated at $268,000,000, to be derived from the following sources:—

America	$124,000,000
Australia	92,000,000
Europe	28,000,000
Asia	20,000,000
Africa, &c., &c.	4,000,000
Total	$268,000,000

It will be perceived that until the discovery of the California mines, the quantity of gold in America was constantly diminishing. The Russian were discovered in 1809, but were not extensively worked until 1843. The California mines were discovered in April, 1848, and the Australian in February, 1851.

It will also be perceived, that the annual production of the precious metals, has become five-fold of what it was at the commencement of the present century. What it will be at the commencement of the next century, he would be a bold man who would venture to predict.

The amount obtained from the California mines in 1851, is estimated at $84,434,355.

The following statement will exhibit the annual product of the precious metals at various periods prior to those named above:—

1492	$250,000	1600	$11,000,000
1500	3,000,000	1700	23,000,000

The following statement will exhibit the quantity of the precious metals in existence at various periods:—

800.....	$160,000,000	1700.....	$2,615,000,000
1492.....	192,000,000	1800.....	3,954,000,000
1550.....	320,000,000	1848.....	6,498,000,000
1600.....	829,000,000	1852.....	7,031,770,000

Of the latter amount, $4,600,000,000 is in silver, and the remainder in gold. The amount of coin in circulation in the world is estimated at $1,800,000,000; the remainder being absorbed in watches, plate, jewelry, &c. The annual depreciation by wear and tear of coin is estimated at a fourth of 1 per cent.

PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH PENNY POSTAGE SYSTEM.

[FROM THE LONDON ECONOMIST.]

In its way, the adoption of the "Penny Postage" was, perhaps, the largest experiment ever made: and it is not too much to say, that of its kind, it has been the most successful. But when we say so, we would not be understood to base its success upon the amount of net revenue which it returns to the exchequer. That we have always held, though an important, yet not the main object of a postal establishment. At best, a revenue to the State, over and above the expenditure, should be regarded rather as an incident, than the object of the post-office;—that being an easy, rapid, and cheap means of communication between the different parts of the country, and different portions of the empire. To a great commercial country like England, there is probably nothing so essential to a profitable development of its resources; nothing that tends more to promote its prosperity and increase of wealth; and few things which contribute more to social and intellectual enjoyment and improvement. To understand fully the effect of the "Penny Postage" upon our commercial and social existence, it is only necessary to reflect upon the consequences which would ensue were we to attempt to revert back to the old plan.

Since the first introduction of the uniform penny rate, there has been a rapid annual increase of letters without an exception in any one year. In 1839, the year preceding the reduction, the entire number of letters, including "franks," which passed through the post-office of the United Kingdom was 82,470,596; in 1840, the first year of the reduction, it rose to 168,768,344; since then the increase has been steady but rapid, until, in 1851, the number amounted to no less than 360,647,187. It is interesting to watch the progress of this increase. The following table is taken from a return which has just been presented to Parliament:—

RETURN, AS NEARLY AS CAN BE ESTIMATED, OF THE NUMBER OF CHARGEABLE LETTERS DELIVERED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, IN THE YEAR IMMEDIATELY PRECEDING THE FIRST GENERAL REDUCTION OF POSTAGE ON THE 5TH DAY OF DECEMBER, 1839, AND FOR THE YEARS 1840, 1845, 1850, AND 1851, SUBSEQUENT THERETO; ALSO, FOR THE FIRST YEAR, THE NUMBER OF FRANKS.

Year ending 31st December.	England and Wales.	Ireland.	Scotland.	Gross total U. Kingdom.
Estimated number of letters, 1839..	59,982,520	8,301,904	7,623,148	77,907,572
Estimated number of franks, 1839..	5,172,284	1,054,508	336,232	6,563,024
Estimated number of letters, 1840..	132,003,525	18,210,642	18,554,167	168,768,344
Estimated number of letters, 1845..	214,153,628	28,587,993	28,669,168	271,410,789
Estimated number of letters, 1850..	275,252,642	35,388,895	35,427,534	347,069,071
Estimated number of letters, 1851..	288,151,755	35,982,782	36,512,649	360,647,188

From this table, it would appear that the relative increase in Scotland and Ireland has been nearly the same, while that in England and Wales has been somewhat larger. But one of the most remarkable features in it is, that Scotland, with less than half the population, shows a somewhat larger number of letters than Ireland.

So far as regards the gross revenue collected, the year ending the 5th of January, 1852, is the first in which the amount is equal to the largest sum collected at the highest rates. The last complete year under the old rates was 1839, when the amount collected as gross revenue was £2,346,278; in 1841 it fell, with the reduction to the penny rate, to £1,359,466; since which time it has gradually increased, until, in 1851, it amounted to £2,422,168. But the enormous increase in the number of letters has

necessarily led to a large increase of expenditure in the management; and chiefly in consequence of the more frequent dispatch of mails, and the extensive employment of railways. But as frequent communication is one of the most important considerations in a commercial country, the additional cost is not to be compared with the great advantages thus secured to the public. In 1839, under the old, dear, and limited system of postal communication, the cost of management amounted only to £686,768, leaving a net revenue of £1,659,509; while in 1851, the cost of management has risen to no less than £1,804,163, leaving the net revenue £1,118,004. The following table, from the same return, shows the gross revenue, the cost of management, and the net revenue in each year since 1838:—

AN ACCOUNT SHOWING THE GROSS AND NET POST-OFFICE REVENUE, AND THE COST OF MANAGEMENT FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM, FOR THE YEAR ENDING THE 5TH JANUARY, 1838, AND FOR THE YEARS 1840, 1845, 1851, AND 1852.

Year ending Jan. 5,	Gross revenue.	Cost of management.	Net revenue.
1840.....	£2,390,763 10 1½	£756,999 7 4	£1,633,764 2 9½
1845.....	1,705,067 16 4	985,110 13 10½	719,957 2 5½
1851	2,264,684 5 3½	1,460,785 13 19½	803,898 11 5½
1852	2,422,168 4 1½	1,304,163 12 8½	1,118,004 11 4½

From this table it appears that the net revenue has more than doubled since 1841, the first complete year of the penny rate.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1ST JULY TO 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1852.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, REGISTER'S OFFICE, November 11, 1852.

RECEIPTS.

From Customs		$15,728,992 25
From Lands		415,945 91
From Loan of January 28, 1847, (Treasury notes funded,).....		10,250 00
From Miscellaneous		531,761 38
Total.....		$16,686,949 54

EXPENDITURES.

Civil, miscellaneous, and foreign intercourse.....		$4,889,368 28
Interior—		
Pensions.....	897,967 61	
Indian Department.....	2,005,579 50	
		2,903,547 21
War—		
Army, proper, &c.....	2,669,662 23	
Fortifications, armories, &c	216,787 04	
		2,886,449 27
Navy.....		2,875,000 73
Interest, &c., on old funded debt and Treasury notes	251 68	
Redemption of 3 per cent stock.....	7 83	
Redemption of stock of the loans of 1843 and 1847.....	300,000 00	
Reimbursements of Treasury notes.....	10,300 00	
	$310,559 51	
From which deduct interest on public debt repaid	4,656 14	
		305,903 37
Total		$13,860,268 76

UNITED STATES TREASURER'S STATEMENT, OCTOBER 25, 1852.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT, SHOWING THE AMOUNT AT HIS CREDIT IN THE TREASURY, WITH ASSISTANT TREASURERS AND DESIGNATED DEPOSITARIES, AND IN THE MINT AND BRANCHES BY RETURNS RECEIVED TO MONDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1852; THE AMOUNT FOR WHICH DRAFTS HAVE BEEN ISSUED, BUT WERE THEN UNPAID, AND THE AMOUNT THEN REMAINING SUBJECT TO DRAFT. SHOWING, ALSO, THE AMOUNT OF FUTURE TRANSFERS TO AND FROM DEPOSITARIES, AS ORDERED BY THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

	Amount on deposit.	Drafts heretofore drawn but not yet paid, though payable.	Amount subj. to draft.
Treasury of United States, Washington ..	$818,890 15	$60,631 02	$258,259 13
Assistant Treasurer, Boston, Mass.....	1,738,668 64	49,593 71	1,689,074 93
Assistant Treasurer, New York, N. Y.....	5,762,852 09	903,434 30	4,859,417 79
Assistant Treasurer, Philadelphia, Pa.....	1,137,850 96	136,345 58	1,001,505 38
Assistant Treasurer, Charleston, S. C	120,282 90	36,974 94	83,307 96
Assistant Treasurer, New Orleans, La.....	909,523 26	549,826 10	359,697 16
Assistant Treasurer, St. Louis, Mo.....	307,721 74	114,935 27	192,786 47
Depositary at Buffalo, New York.....	17,773 39	483 35	17,290 04
Depositary at Baltimore, Md.....	24,114 23	11,293 47	12,820 76
Depositary at Richmond, Va	27,556 71	1,650 61	25,906 10
Depositary at Norfolk, Va.....	41,658 50	27,708 80	13,949 70
Depositary at Wilmington, N. C.....	1,014 00	1,005 24	8 76
Depositary at Savannah, Georgia.....	37,062 70	5,050 00	32,012 70
Depositary at Mobile, Alabama.....	24,293 04	20,135 99	4,157 05
Depositary at Nashville, Tennessee.....	20,306 28	11,187 88	9,118 40
Depositary at Cincinnati, Ohio.....	94,428 29	5,262 41	89,165 88
Depositary at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania....	3,180 80	1,167 74	2,013 06
Depositary at Cincinnati, (late).....	3,301 37	.....	3,301 37
Depositary at San Francisco.....	800,681 41	241,700 00	558,981 41
Depositary at Dubuque, Iowa.....	2,156 45	1,667 10	489 35
Depositary at Little Rock, Arkansas.....	11,311 33	5,209 83	6,101 50
Depositary at Jeffersonville, Indiana	39,490 13	9,129 54	30,360 59
Depositary at Chicago, Illinois.....	139,531 89	38,966 74	100,565 15
Depositary at Detroit, Michigan.....	36,313 87	11,582 54	24,731 33
Depositary at Tallahassee, Florida.....	4,481 93	3,715 99	765 94
Suspense account.....$2,486 66	.....	2,486 66	....
Mint of the U. S., Philadelphia, Pa.....	5,629,170 00	.....	5,629,170 00
Branch Mint of U. S., Charlotte, N. C	32,000 00	.....	32,000 00
Branch Mint of U. S., Dahlonega, Ga.....	26,850 00	.....	26,850 00
Branch Mint of U. S., New Orleans, La...	1,100,000 00	500,000 00	600,000 00
Total.....	18,412,466 06	2,751,144 81	15,663,807 91
Deduct suspense account.....			2,486 66
			$15,661,321 25
Add difference in transfers			1,107,500 00
Net amount subject to draft			$16,768,821 25
Transfers ordered to treasury of the U. S., Washington, D. C....			$650,000 00
Transfers ordered to Assistant Treasurer, New York, N. Y.			300,000 00
Transfers ordered to Assistant Treasurer, New Orleans, La			100,000 00
Transfers ordered to Depositary at Norfolk, Virginia			180,000 00
Total.....			$1,230,000 00
Transfers ordered from Depository at Chicago, Illinois.....			$120,000 00
Transfers ordered from Mint of the U. S., Philadelphia, Pa.....			2,500 00
Total.....			$122,500 00

Of which amount to Europe, namely:—

In July	$533,437
In August	209,499
In September	670,734
Total to Europe	$1,413,670

The entire product of gold since the discovery of California mines to July 1st, of present year, is estimated at $174,780,877.

WEIGHING DEPARTMENT OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

One of the most interesting and astonishing departments within the whole compass of the Bank of England is the weighing department, in which, with the rapidity of thought, and a precision approaching to the hundredth part of a grain, the weight of the gold coins is determined. There are six weighing machines, kept working by the same agency which applies all mechanical power in the band, and three weighers attend to these. Rolls of sovereigns, or half-sovereigns, are placed in grooves, and are shaken, one at a time, by the motion of the machine, into the scale. If they are of standard weight, they are thrown by the same mechanical intelligence into a box at the right hand side of the person who watches the operation; if they have lost the hundredth part of a grain, they are cast into a box on the left. Those which stand the test are put into bags of 1,000 sovereigns each, and those below par are cut by a machine, and sent back to the mint. Between one thousand and two thousand light sovereigns are thus daily sent out of circulation. The silver is put up in bags, each of £1,000 value, and the gold into bags of a thousand, and then those bagfuls of bullion are sent through a strongly-guarded door, or rather window, into the treasury. The treasury is a gloomy apartment, fitted up with iron presses, which are supplied with huge locks and bolts, and which are perfectly fire-proof. Gold, silver, and paper money, ready for circulation, to the amount of £22,000,000 sterling, were in the treasury when we visited it. One of the gentlemen in that department placed 1,000 sovereigns in our hand, and, at the same time pointed to seventy bags full of gold in a little recess which he had thrown open, making, in all, the modest sum of £70,000. He placed notes of half a million also upon our palm, which, no doubt, had its own sensation as the precious deposit trembled on its top.—*Hog's Instructor.*

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE AMERICAN NAUTICAL ALMANAC.

We learn from *Silliman's Journal of Science*, that the first volume of the American Nautical Almanac, published by authority of Congress, will appear in a few weeks. It has been prepared under the supervision of Lieut. C. H. Davis. U. S. N. It is stated that this work will be a material improvement on the British Nautical Almanac, in having more current lunar tables, which give more accurate predictions, as tested in the case of the eclipse, July 28, 1851.

"At Washington, the British almanac was in error for the beginning of the eclipse 78 seconds, and for the end 62 seconds. The American almanac was in error for the beginning only 13 seconds, and for the end only one second and a half." * * * * "The errors exposed in this eclipse may give rise to an error of from 15 to 20 miles in the determination of the longitude at sea by means of lunar distances, and to an uncertainty of twice that amount. The possibility of such an error, arising from this source, is removed in the American ephemeris."

There are other points of superiority; one of the principal being "a more complete, full and accurate table of latitudes and longitudes, particularly of American latitudes and longitudes, than is now anywhere to be found," and the other relates to the tide tables and other practical information concerning the tides. The announcement of the American work has reduced the price of the British from 5s. to 2s. 6d.

OF ENTERING THE CHANNEL OF THE BAY OF SMYRNA.

Augustus Stafford, Secretary of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, has transmitted to Capt. G. A. Halstead, Secretary, Lloyd's, for the information of the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's, the following extract from a letter which has been received from Commander Spratt, of her majesty's surveying vessel Spitfire, relative to alterations in the marks for entering the Channel of the Bay of Smyrna:—

H. M. Steam Vessel Spitfire, Smyrna, August 26th, 1852.

Sir:—Having, since my arrival at this port on August 13th, been enabled to examine the Spit of the mouth of the Hermes, upon which a beacon was placed in 1842, and having ascertained that it has considerably grown out by the depositions from that river since that time, I therefore felt it my duty, as early as possible, to inform you of the fact, for the benefit of the merchants and captains interested in the navigation of this gulf, and to point out to them that the marks given in a copy of a chart of the "Channel of Bay of Smyrna," by Captain Graves and the officers of H. M. S. Beacon, which was then published at this port, viz:—"That the north end of the old castle on Mount Pagus, on which the south end of Sanjac Castle, clears the Mermer Spit," is no longer true, the spit having grown out beyond those marks.

It is now necessary to substitute the following for the former marks:—A large and conspicuous tree with a house under it, which appears to the south of Sanjac Castle, on with the north end of the old castle on Mount Pagus. This latter object will in consequence be more than twice its breadth open to the south of Sanjac Castle, instead of touching it as by the old marks. N. B.—This spit is the only one of such rapid increase as to sensibly affect the navigation of the channel in a few years. But it is one of least danger where a proper look-out is kept, since the reeds growing on the lips of the river are within a cable's length of the extremity of the spit, and the shallow bar is generally seen to break, or with trunks of trees aground upon it.

As the other spits extend some distance from dry land, they are not easily indicated; the marks for them being very distant and indistinct. It is therefore the more to be regretted that the buoys formerly placed upon these spits, by the subscription of some few merchants, have been entirely removed through the apparent want of interest, or care about their preservation, by the local authority.

The consequence is, that many vessels now ground upon these spits, much loss of time and expense follows, which often is far more than would be the cost of replacing and maintaining such necessary guides to a great commercial port.

Finding that notice of their entire removal is not generally known, strangers arriving at the Port of Smyrna are thus often placed in a difficulty. (Signed.)

T. Spratt, Commander.

OF THE LIGHT ON THE ISLAND OF SEIRO.

James Booth, under date Whitehall, September 24, 1852, has, under the direction of the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council of Trade, transmitted to Captain G. A. Halstead, R. N., Secretary at Lloyd's, for the information of the committee managing the affairs at Lloyd's, and in order that it might obtain publicity, the subjoined translation of a notice issued by the Danish Marine Board, respecting a new light established on the Island of Seiro, at the northern entrance of the Great Belt, and which will be lighted for the first time on the 25th October, 1852.

"On the so called Guiben, on the northmost point of the same Island of Seiro, lat. 55° 55′ 10″ north, and lon. 11° 5′ 9″ east of Greenwich, a revolving light will he established on a tower 50 feet above the land, and 100 feet above the sea.

"The new light, which will be lighted for the first time on the 25th inst., and will thereafter be kept burning the same time as all the other lights in the kingdom; viz:—From half an hour after sunset until sunrise, will consist of eight lamps with reverberators, which will take six minutes to each revolution, so that they show a strong light, lasting between 12 and 15 seconds, every second minute.

"The light will show all around the horizon for the distance of 3½ to 4 miles, (14 to 16 miles English.)

"Marine Board, September 10, 1852.

SOUTH FORELAND HIGH LIGHT.

TRINITY-HOUSE, LONDON, September 1, 1852.

This corporation having, with a view to promote the safety of vessels when navigating by night in the vicinity of Folkstone, recently caused examination to be made of the rocky patches which extend from the shore at Copt Point; and having ascertained that additional facility for navigating that part of the Channel, will be afforded by decreasing the range of the South Foreland High Light to the northward, notice is hereby given, that on and after the 1st of October next, the light from the said high light-house will not be visible to the northward of the line of bearing of W. by S. southerly.

Masters of vessels drawing more than 14 feet water should adhere to the old rule, which requires that the lower light shall be kept in sight when approaching the shore; and masters and pilots of all vessels not bound to Folkstone Harbor are now instructed to stand off immediately the high light disappears.

By order, J. HERBERT, Secretary.

DIRECTIONS FOR SAILING INTO AND OUT OF HARBOR GRACE.

Ships going out of Harbor Grace with scant winds, should never open Long Harry of the easternmost land; that mark will lead clear of the White Rock and North Bar. For the South Bar, never open Ship's Head Beacon on the beach, until the beacon opposite the Chapel opens to the southward of Father Ewer's House, you are then clear of the South Bar and may haul to S. E.

LEADING MARKS INTO HARBOR GRACE. The beacon on Ship's Head just open to the northward of the beacon on the beach, will lead mid-channel; or Long Harry just touching to the easternmost land. The beacon open of Father Ewer's House, will lead along the eastern side of the bar in four fathoms low water, spring tides.

The beacon between Father Ewer's House and the Spire, is the cross mark for the spit or point of the bar. The beacon on with the west end of Dr. Stirling's house, (now the Nunnery,) leads along the west side of the bar, in five fathoms, low water, spring tides.

WEST COAST OF JUTLAND, AND THE COASTS OF BORNHOLM.

The Danish Consul General at London, (England,) under date September 28th, 1852, has issued the subjoined notice to mariners:—

Notice is hereby given to mariners, in the event of their being unfortunately stranded on the west coast of Jutland, or on the coasts of Bornholm, and no communication can by other means be made with the ship for rescuing the crew, that a line of nine yarns will be thrown to them by the aid of a rocket apparatus.

On the shipwrecked seamen hauling in this line it will be followed by a 3½ inch warp, having a block secured at the end, in which is the bight of a smaller line. Both ends of this line are fastened to the escape-chair, which by means of an iron ring traverses the 3½ inch warp. This warp is to be made fast on board the vessel as high as practicable, in order that the chair, if possible, may pass clear of the surge.

The chair can now, by help of the small line which runs into the block fastened to the warp on board, be hauled in and out on the warp; and the communication for the rescue of the crew be thus established.

DETENTION OF VESSELS AT HAMPTON ROADS.

A Committee was appointed at the last meeting of the Board of Trade, to address the Treasury Department with reference to the undue detention of vessels bound to Baltimore at Hampton Roads, by the Collector at Norfolk. The committee received in answer the following letter:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 12, 1852.

GENTLEMEN: In reply to your communication of the 8th inst., respecting the detention of vessels, bound to Baltimore, by being compelled to enter and clear at Norfolk while detained at Hampton Roads, I have to state that the collector at Norfolk has been instructed under this date to require, in such cases, the delivery of a certified copy of the manifest to the boarding officer, but not to require the vessels to enter and clear at his port. I am, respectfully, your obedient servant,

WM. L. HODGE, Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE FIRST MINING OPERATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

To Freeman Hunt, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

Doubtless there may be some readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, who will be surprised to learn that regular mining operations were undertaken in our country long prior to the Revolutionary War; and that some of the mines then opened have scarcely been surpassed in importance and value by the recent enterprises of a similar character, even in California. With such persons the impression may exist, that the developments of mineral wealth in that distant State, have now, for the first time, turned public attention to the resources of the country more contiguous to us, and awakened the present spirit of mining enterprise. But this is not the fact. It is well known that a mania for gold existed in the minds of many of the first settlers of the American Colonies. They made extensive explorations, especially in that portion of the Colonies which now contains the States of New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Vermont. In some instances, these explorations must have been limited only be the impenetrable nature of the forests, or the hostile disposition of the Indians. From a large mass of letters and memoranda now before me, which were written by Mr. Sampson Simson, in the year 1750, I am induced to believe that all, or nearly all, of the mines now known to exist in the United States were then discovered. And, in addition, there were doubtless others, which were subsequently lost sight of, in consequence of their remoteness from the settlements, and the danger attending the access to them.

It is a very natural question to ask of what account such mines can be, as they have not yielded anything of special value even to the present day. Nay, it is even said, that the work upon them has long ago ceased, and even tradition has reported them as valueless. It is a fact that no important yield was formerly obtained from them, and it is likewise a fact that tradition reports them to be valueless, because the operations upon them were long ago suspended. But it is not a fact, on the contrary it is very far from the truth, that these operations were suspended because the mines were of little value. Instead thereof, many of them are of great value, but their situations were so exposed during the Revolutionary War, that all work upon them was, from the necessity of the case, suspended. This, I think, will be so apparent from the following facts which I am about to relate, as to convince any one that the public impression upon this point is erroneous, and that we yet have in our very midst, mineral wealth of incalculable value and of rare richness.

It does not appear that any serious efforts were made to develop these mines, until about a century ago. At that time, Mr. Sampson Simpson, a highly honorable and wealthy merchant of the city of New York, in connection with capitalists in London, made entensive explorations and commenced working many of them. Their explorations they extended from North Carolina to Massachusetts.

In the year 1764, he associated with himself Charles Scott, of Virginia, who was afterwards a member of the First Continental Congress, General Moncton, Colonel James, an Engineer in the British Army, who had command of the sappers & miners at the Battle of Bunker Hill, the Governors of New York and Massachusetts, the Provost of New York, George Trail, Thomas Barstow, Colonel McLane, Henry Remsen, and General Ethan Allen. With these gentlemen he continued to be associated until the time of his death, which occurred in the year 1773. His successor was Solomon Simpson, the father of Sampson Simpson, who at present resides in Warren Street in New York.

During the lifetime of Mr. Sampson Simpson, he obtained many valuable mining rights from individuals and the Crown of Great Britain. Amongst the most valuable of these, was a grant from the Crown, of all mines and minerals in Hampshire County in the Colony of Massachusetts, which embraced the present counties of Hampden, Franklin and Hampshire; also the mines and minerals in the Manor of Philipsburgh, including a portion of Westchester and Putnam counties in the State of New York; and the lands from the Town of Roxbury in the State of Connecticut, now known as the Spruce Hill Mines. He worked, also, a silver mine at Norwalk, Connecticut; the same which is now worked by Doctor Frankfort, or one very near to it. Under the association above mentioned, the copper mines at or near Granby, Connecticut, the

mines on Spruce Hill, Litchfield County, and the silver mine at Sing Sing, Westchester County, New York, were very extensively worked and proved exceedingly rich. The latter mine yielded a large quantity of native silver, some portions of which may now be seen at the office of Sampson Simpson, Esq., No. 18 Beekman Street, New York.

As a large number of the stockholders of this silver mine at Sing Sing, belonged to the British Army on the commencement of the Revolutionary War, and as its location was very much exposed, the operations upon it were suspended at that time. The tools, smelting house and other buildings were removed by the Continental Army to West Point, and the latter were made to serve for barracks during the war. It was, therefore, solely on account of these circumstances, and not from a scarcity of metal that this work was discontinued. It is certainly to be hoped that some enterprising individuals will again open these mines, and render their untold wealth useful to mankind, as well as profitable to their present proprietor.

Previously to this time, operations had been commenced on the mines in the vicinity of Northampton. On the 5th October, 1765, Charles Scott, Ethan Allen, Benjamin Stiles, Abram Bronson, Israel Bronson, John Frederick Stendall, Thomas Row, and three slaves, Tom, Cato, and Cesar, left Roxbury, Connecticut, for Northampton, took possession of the mines, and began to work them. On the 29th of November, 1776, Thomas Row, mining captain, writes to Mr. Sampson Simpson as follows: "I have been in Northampton as you desired me, and find that part looks as though it would produce a great deal of lead ore; the Messrs. Bronson think they have cleared £300 besides paying all the charges. I was at three places or mines, or rather veins, which are very large and are mixed very much with ore; there is another about two miles from Bronson's. This vein is the largest I ever saw;" (Southampton Lead Mines) "the first stone of ore taken out of the back of the vein, weighed above two hundred weight, almost solid. This vein is open six rods long and four feet wide, mixed very thick with ore; there is one part of the vein that is above a foot pretty near solid."

Judge B. Stiles and Charles Scott wrote to Mr. Simpson concurring with Captain Row in the above statement.

During the year 1771, Colonel James, Royal Engineer, (the same who afterwards commanded at Bunker Hill,) obtained leave of absence and sailed for England, with authority to sell a portion of the mines at Sing Sing, Roxbury, and Northampton, and also to conclude the sale of a portion of the mines that had been negotiated by Doctor Benjamin Franklin to General Moncton. A portion of the funds were paid and acceptances made to the amount of £6,000 sterling, payable at a subsequent day. But owing to the disturbed state of the colony, it was deemed prudent not to pay the bills at maturity. Colonel James returned in time to participate in the Battle of Bunker Hill. The War of the Revolution, which now broke out, put an end to all mining operations, and it was not until many years afterwards, that the work was resumed.

In the years 1807, 1808 and 1809, Perkins Nichols, Esq., of Boston, obtained deeds from the owners of the soil for some of these mining rights of the proprietor, and commenced operations in the spring of 1809. At Southampton the property was divided by sales of portions to the Hon. Thomas H. Perkins & Brother, Isaac P. Davis, and David Hinkley. Subsequently, and by consent of the parties, it was conveyed to Dr. Solomon Bond in trust, but this gentlemen was never interested in the property. These mines were afterwards subdivided and shares sold to various individuals, who from time to time forfeited their interests by non-payment of assessments, until the whole property became vested in Perkins Nichols, Thomas H. Perkins, Isaac P. Davis, and David Hinkley. It was owing to the perseverance of the latter gentleman that the works were continued several years, after all the other parties had ceased to advance money to push forward the enterprise.

The canal leading to the adit is about ¼ of a mile in length. This adit, which is horizontal and of 1,142 feet, has been driven into the solid rock, and will drain the mine of water to the depth of 200 feet at its greatest elevation. A shaft was sunk to ventilate the adit to the depth of 159 feet. A shaft has also been sunk about 45 feet on the course of the vein.

The work upon this mine ceased in consequence of the death of David Hinkley and also that of his head miner, Mr. Work. They were thirteen years driving this adit.

In the year 1847, Knowles Taylor, Esq., and Charles Stearns, Geologist of the city of New York, made an unsuccessful attempt to purchase these mines. But the tradition of the outstanding title of Sampson Simpson, and their inability to find his heirs induced them, at that time, to abandon the enterprise. Subsequently, in the year 1849, Mr. Stearns became the purchaser of the Roxbury Silver Mines, and then found that

in order to perfect his title it was necessary for him to search out the descendents of Mr. Simpson. In this renewed effort he ultimately met with complete success. He found Sampson Simpson at Yonkers, Westchester County, New York, with all the papers of his uncle in the most perfect state of preservation; and with them there was also the long lost title to the Hampshire mines. He immediately purchased the interests of the mining company formed by Perkins Nichols, and a good-will or quit-claim deeds of the occupants and owners of the soil. On the 4th of June last, he commenced operations at the Northampton mines. The labor of a few days was sufficient to make most important developments, which led to a sale of the property to Messrs. Sandford, Coit, & Griswold.

Since the sale, Messrs. Stearns & Sturges have devoted their energies to clearing out the mines, timbering the old adit at the Southampton mines, and taking the water out of the shaft; all of which they have successfully accomplished. They have also let the mines to a company of Cornish miners, who work them for one-half the ore raised, and pay their own expenses. Thus, after nearly a century, these mines promise most important results to the proprietors.

The facts presented in this brief detail of these mines show the decided energy with which some of the most intelligent capitalists of the Colonies and in England embarked in mining operations. At the same time they make apparent how completely all enterprise was paralyzed by the Revolutionary War, and how widely public attention was diverted from these enterprises, and even their localities, so as to render an investigation of the title of the owners extremely difficult. It is not wonderful that, under such circumstances, operating for a series of years, an erroneous impression that these mines and many others were valueless should become deeply fixed in the public mind. Nothing, however, is necessary to remove this mistake, and present the subject in its true light, but the completion of the explorations which have been set on foot.

I remain, dear sir, your obedient servant,

CHARLES STEARNS.

THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

NUMBER IV.

LEGENDS OF THE GLASS HOUSE, ETC.

Enough has been adduced to show the peculiar estimation in which the art of glass making was formerly held, and the privileges conferred on it by the various governments of Europe.

The art was thus invested with an air of romance almost; and a manufacture commanding so much attention on the part of the governments, was regarded with a great share of awe and wonder.

It is not strange that in this state of things, various legends should have been identified with the manufacture and its localities. Among these legends was that which ascribed to the furnace fire the property of creating the monster called the salamander. It was believed, too, that at certain times this wonderful being issued from his abode, and as opportunity offered, carried back some victim to his fiery bed. The absence of workmen, who sometimes departed secretly for foreign lands, was always accounted for by the hypothesis that in some unguarded moment they had fallen a prey to the salamander. Visitors, too, whose courage could sustain them, were directed to look through the eye-hole to the interior of the furnace, and no one failed to discover the monster coiled in his glowing bed, and glaring with fiery eyes upon the intruder, much to his discomfiture and effectually as to his retreat. Some gallant knights, armed "cap-a-pie," it is said, dared a combat with the fiery dragon, but always returned defeated—the important fact being doubtless then unknown or overlooked, that steel armor, being a rapid conductor of heat, would be likely to tempt a more ready approach of the fabled monster.

There was another current notion that glass was as easily rendered malleable as brittle, but that the workmen concealed the art, and the life of any one attempting the discovery was surely forfeited. An ancient writer on glass, "Isiderus," states that in the reign of Tiberius, an artist banished from Rome on political considerations, in his retirement discovered the art of rendering glass malleable; he ventured to return to Rome, in hopes of procuring a remission of his sentence and a reward for his invention; the glass makers supposing their interest to be at stake, employed so powerful an influence with the Emperor (who was made to believe that the value of gold might

be diminished by the discovery) that he caused the artist to be beheaded, and his secret died with him. "Blancourt" relates that as late as the time of Louis XIII, an inventor having presented to Cardinal Richelieu a specimen of malleable glass of his own manufacture, he was rewarded by a sentence of perpetual imprisonment, lest the "vested interest" of French glass manufacturers might be injured by the discovery. Even at the present day, the error is a popular one, that if the art of making glass malleable were made known, it would have the effect of closing nearly all the existing glass works—while the truth is, that quite the reverse would be the result. Whenever the art of making glass malleable is made known, it will assuredly multiply the manufacture to a tenfold degree.

It was formerly the custom for the workmen, in setting pots in the glass furnace, to protect themselves from the heat by dressing in the skins of wild animals from head to foot; to this "outre" garb were added glass goggle eyes, and thus the most hideous looking monsters were readily presented to the eye. Show was then made of themselves in the neighborhood, to the infinite alarm of children, old women and others. This always occurred, with other mysterious doings on the occasion of setting the pot, or any other important movement attendant on the business. The ground was thus furnished for very much of the horrible "diablerie" connected with the whole history of the manufacture.

A belief was long prevalent, that glass drinking vessels, made under certain astronomical influences, would certainly fly to pieces if any poisonous liquid was placed in them; and sales of vessels of this kind were made at enormous prices. Another idea pervaded the community, that vessels of a certain form, made in a peculiar state of the atmosphere, and after midnight, would allow a pure diamond to pass directly through the bottom of the vessel. Various articles, such as colored goblets, were thought to add to the flavor of wine, and to detract materially from its intoxicating quality.

All these and many other popular notions added greatly to the mystery and renown of glass manufacturers. We close this number with an extract from "Howell's Familiar Letters;" "Murano," says he, "a little island about one mile from Venice, is the place where crystal glass is made, and it is a rare sight to see whole streets where on one side there are twenty furnaces at work. They say here, that although one should transfer a furnace from Murano to Venice, or to any of the little assembled islands about here, or to any other part of the earth beside, to use the same materials, the same workmen, the same fuel, and the self-same ingredients every way, yet they cannot make crystal glass in that perfection for beauty and luster as at Murano. Some impute it to the circumambient air, which is purified and attenuated by the concurrence of so many fires, that are in these furnaces night and day perpetually, for they are like the vestal fires, never going out."

There is no manufacturing business carried on by man combining so many inherent contingencies, as that of the working of flint-glass. There is none demanding more untiring vigilance on the part of the daily superintendent, or requiring so much ability and interest in the work. Unlike all other branches of labor, it is carried on by night and day, is governed by no motive-power connected with steam or water, and has no analogy to the production of labor by looms or machinery.

The crude material of earth being used, each portion requires careful refining from natural impurities, and when compounded, being dependent upon combustion in the furnace for its completion, (which combustion is affected by change of the atmosphere beyond the power of man to direct, but exercises a power to affect the heat of the furnace acting for good or evil,) much responsibility rests upon the furnace tenders; constant care on their part is required. A slight neglect affects the quality of the glass. A check upon the furnace in founding time will spoil every pot of metal for the best work. Over-heat, too, will destroy the pots, and the entire weekly melt will be launched into the cave, at a loss of several thousand dollars. Even with the utmost care, a rush of air will not uncommonly pass through the furnace and destroy one or more pots in a minute's space. And when the furnace has yielded a full melt, and is ready for work, many evils are at hand, and among the ever-jarring materials of a glass-house, some one becomes adverse to a full week's work; vigilance is not always the price of success.

Again: no branch of mechanical labor possesses more of attraction for the eye of the stranger or the curious, than is to be witnessed in a glass-house in full play. The crowded and bee-like movements of the workmen, with irons and hot metal, yet each, like the spheres of his own orbit, presents a scene apparently of inextricable confusion.

It is a difficult task to describe the curious and interesting operations of the glass-blowers; for the present we may say, that there is no other employment so largely dependent upon steadiness of nerve and calm self-possession. The power of manipulation is the result of long experience. The business of the glass-blower is literally at his "finger's ends." It is most interesting to witness the progress of his labor, from the first gathering of the liquid metal from the pot, and the passing it from hand to hand, until the shapeless and apparently uncontrollable mass is converted into some elegant article. Equally interesting is it to witness with what dexterity he commands, and with what entire ease he controls the melted mass—the care, also, with which he swings it with force just enough to give it the desired length, joins it to other pieces, or with shears cuts it with the same ease as paper. The whole process, indeed, is one filled with the most fascinating interest and power.

Of all the articles of glass manufacture, none command a greater degree of attention than the article called the salver, and no other develops so pleasing and surprising effects in its processes. When seen for the first time, the change from a shapeless mass, the force with which it flies open at the end of the process, changing in an instant into a perfect article, all combine to astonish and delight the beholder.

Mystery is as much a characteristic of the art now as at any former period; but it is a mystery unallied to superstition—a mystery whose interpreter is science—a mystery which, instead of repelling the curious and frightening the ignorant, now invites the inquiring and delights the unlearned. D. J.

INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS OF GEORGIA.

In the *Cotton Plant*, a valuable and interesting paper, published at Washington devoted to the development, agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing, of the South, as well as to the promotion and cultivation of every other species of industrial pursuit, having in view the commercial emancipation and real independence of the Southern section of the confederacy, we find the following brief, yet comprehensive summing up, of the progress which Georgia—justly styled the "Empire State of the South"—has made in the growing, fabrication and encouragement, of the different branches of industry, upon the sound, stable, and permanent advancement of which, the prosperity, the strength—in fact, the future independence of the South—mainly depends:—

"Georgia has advanced most rapidly in her industrial progress. Her manufactories, railroads, and agricultural reform, have caused this. In 'castings' she has four establishments, with a capital invested of $35,000. They consume 440 tons pig iron, 100 tons mineral coal, 9,800 bushels of coke and charcoal. There are 39 hands employed in them. The value of raw material, etc., is $11,950. These establishments turn out 415 tons castings. The entire value of product being $46,800. In 'Pig Iron' she has three establishments—

Capital invested	$36,000
Ore used ..... tons	5,189
Value of raw material	$25,840

There is turned out 900 tons pig iron, value of entire product, $57,300. She has in 'Woolen Goods' three establishments—

Capital invested	$68,000
Pounds of wool used	153,816
The value of the raw material is	$30,392
Yards of cloth manufactured	340,660
Entire value of product	$88,750

In 'Cotton Goods' she has over thirty-five establishments—

Capital invested	$1,730,156
Number of bales of cotton consumed	20,230
Value of raw material	$900,419
The number of yards sheeting, etc., turned out	7,209,292
The value of entire product is	$2,135,044
The entire amount of capital invested in Georgia in manufactures is	$1,859,156
The entire product	$2,329,294

"Can the South manufacture? Has she capital? Do manufactories produce?"

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF TANNERIES IN THE UNITED STATES, AS COMPILED FROM THE RETURNS OF THE CENSUS OF 1850.

State.	No. of establishments.	Capital invested.	No. of Hides and Skins. Hides.	Skins.	Value of raw material.	Hands employed. Male.	Female.	Monthly wages. Male.	Female.	No. of sides of leather Skins, &c., produced. Skins.	Sides of leather.	Value.
Maine	213	$732,747	316,334	81,350	$892,343	787	3	17,229	28	81,350	632,668	$1,620,636
New Hampshire	163	441,975	166,579	109,595	543,779	502	..	11,737	...	109,595	333,158	900,421
Vermont	152	346,250	125,052	44,330	357,946	397	..	8,807	...	44,330	250,104	587,466
Massachusetts	246	1,377,725	750,220	293,000	2,311,178	1,510	32	41,246	368	293,000	1,500,440	3,519,123
Rhode Island	10	42,900	10,571	14,861	40,615	38	..	829	...	14,861	21,142	75,010
Connecticut	115	360,500	122,455	67,110	453,854	407	..	10,027	...	67,110	244,910	731,000
New York	942	5,025,143	1,707,862	871,894	6,065,221	4,914	31	103,171	293	871,891	3,415,724	9,804,000
New Jersey	133	572,857	101,485	120,731	423,537	405	..	8,946	...	120,731	202,970	724,466
Pennsylvania	1,039	3,540,318	926,450	293,798	3,169,109	2,978	2	54,784	17	293,798	1,852,960	5,275,492
Delaware	16	99,350	26,050	12,950	99,620	108	..	2,533	...	12,950	52,100	163,742
Maryland	116	628,900	169,585	68,810	725,612	479	..	8,034	...	68,810	339,170	1,103,139
Virginia	341	676,983	189,200	74,573	498,926	900	6	13,648	62	74,573	378,400	894,877
North Carolina	151	251,055	77,805	24,035	191,237	372	1	5,291	4	24,035	155,610	352,535
South Carolina	91	184,335	55,000	13,830	131,679	264	..	3,667	...	13,830	110,000	261,833
Georgia	140	262,855	81,484	21,705	185,604	402	..	7,107	...	21,705	162,968	361,586
Florida	4	9,400	2,100	1,200	4,300	12	.	189	...	1,200	4,200	9,200
Alabama	149	200,570	79,033	13,922	158,247	457	5	7,700	45	13,922	158,066	335,911
Mississippi	92	145,615	52,315	9,730	111,474	266	3	4,924	25	9,730	104,630	229,407
Louisiana	15	38,800	10,500	2,850	26,440	51	3	930	22	2,850	21,000	55,025
Texas	22	33,850	9,350	1,750	18,624	63	1	1,007	10	1,750	18,700	52,050
Arkansas	51	42,100	16,450	3,851	35,230	110	..	1,814	...	3,851	32,900	78,774
Tennessee	394	490,320	166,944	43,429	396,159	915	6	14,338	32	43,429	333,888	746,484
Kentucky	275	763,455	196,200	69,380	537,147	877	2	14,417	9	69,380	392,400	985,267
Ohio	706	1,840,389	344,280	228,493	1,118,080	1,826	..	35,880	...	228,493	688,560	1,964,591
Michigan	60	236,000	72,365	23,600	203,450	265	..	6,782	...	23,600	144,730	363,980
Indiana	358	514,897	141,549	57,070	405,838	836	2	15,199	14	57,070	283,098	714,813
Illinois	96	188,373	50,825	21,575	129,907	240	..	5,145	...	21,575	101,650	244,028
Missouri	148	228,095	120,667	44,493	247,956	412	5	8,306	41	44,493	241,334	466,241
Iowa	14	20,350	5,340	850	10,745	28	..	543	...	850	10,680	24,520
Wisconsin	8	78,950	29,800	14,900	93,380	75	..	1,710	...	14,900	59,600	175,710
New Mexico	1	500	120	.....	200	3	..	60	...	.....	240	940
District of Columbia	2	25,000	5,000	4,200	25,600	10	..	270	...	4,200	10,000	40,000
Total	6,263	18,900,557	6,125,970	2,653,865	19,613,237	20,909	102	416,214	970	2,653,865	12,257,940	32,861,796

MANUFACTURE OF LADIES' MUFFS IN LONDON.

There are many processes in manufacturing industry which, were they known to the wearers or users of the manufactured article, would create a disgust to it; but perhaps none are so degrading as the process of "tubbing" the skins for ladies' muffs, boas, &c. The workmen are ranged in tubs along the sides of an apartment, or shed, or any kind of out-house, in a yard or some secluded place in London. Every tubber, with the exception of those who may be unwell and who may then wear a loose sort of jacket, which, however, tells against the efficiency and rapidity of his work—is altogether naked! The tub in which the man works reaches up to the waist, and a thick yellowish cloth is thrown over its top, which the workman keeps every now and then gathering about him, and which he can draw around like a bag, so that, while at his labor, the upper part of his person alone is visible. To a stranger, the effect of a visit to such a workshop—to which it is not easy to gain admission—is startling. Pale, brown, and often hirsute men move up and down in their tubs, stamping and alternating their feet with little cessation; sometimes in silence, and in many cases with little or no expression in their faces. Each of these men is "tubbing," that is, he is treading or stamping, first on one foot and then on the other, on the skins which are the complement of his tub. These skins are for the supply of the furriers who employ the master skin-dressers. There is no water or other fluid used in tubbing, but the fleshy part of the skins are all buttered, and with the cheapest butter or scrapings, and in some places rancid butter, when such things are purchasable in sufficient quantity. Sawdust is used, which gives the tubber a firmer tread, and tends to aid, by its friction, in scouring the skins. Upon these tubbed skins, so prepared, the men tread, and the perspiration which sometimes pours from them is considered better and readier for the cure of the skins than any butter or other fatty compound, which are looked upon as merely auxiliary to what oozes from the workman's body. And in this way men's sweat is forced for hours together into the skinny parts of the furs which are to be ladies' muffs, boas, and tippets! The majority of the workmen are Irish. The wages are very scanty.

ITEMS OF GOLD MINING IN CALIFORNIA.

The *Placer Herald* of September 20th, 1852, says the Sub-Marine Company, numbering 13 men, at work on the Middle Fork of the American River, were averaging over $3,000 per day on last accounts, and have reached as high as $4,000 in one day. The Macatee Company numbers three men; and is averaging $3,000 per week.

The company at work at Sandy Bar, according to the *Caleveras Chronicle*, are among the most fortunate on the river. The company is composed of Frenchmen and numbers about ten persons. On Tuesday, September 23d, 1852, they dug out the surprising amount of *one hundred and twenty-one pounds* of gold! This claims pays richly throughout, averaging $3,000 daily, which, with the produce of these pockets, frequently met with, makes it by far the most desirable on the river.

The Gold Hill Quartz Mining Company, as we learn from the *Placer Times and Transcript*, have two mills—one having a steam-engine of 25 horse power, driving 18 stampers, capable of crushing 30 tons of quartz per day; and the other of 65 horse power, driving 10 stampers, and a saw-mill that will cut 8,000 feet of lumber per day. The quartz yields from $45 to $50 per ton. The capital of the company is one million of dollars.

PROGRESS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTORIES.

The prosperity which has attended the cotton manufactures during the last three or four years has, very naturally, given an impulse to their extension. Mr. Leonard Horner, the inspector of factories, states, in his report of November last, that up to that time 81 new factories had been built or set to work in the course of the year, (that is, up to October 31st, 1851,) in the district of which Manchester is the capital. These establishments employed steam-power equal to 2,240 horses; besides which there had been an enlargement of mills within the same period to the extent of 1,477 horse-

power. The total increase of steam-power within that single year was, therefore, equal to 8,717 horse-power, and calculated to give employment to about 14,000 additional work people. "That the profits of factories continued, on the average of years, to be abundantly remunerative," Mr. Horner thought, "these facts of the investment of fresh capital in them abundantly proved." Since then, capital has become still more abundant, whilst the means of otherwise profitably investing it have probably somewhat decreased, and that the building of factories is on the increase will not be a matter of surprise.

PRODUCTION OF INDIGO IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

The *Camden* (S. C.) *Journal* says:—Indigo and silk, previous to the Revolution, were two of the principal productions of the South; these, together with skins, quercitron bark, and various roots, formed the chief articles of export. The introduction of cotton in a few years caused these articles to be laid aside. The only place that we know of where indigo has continued to be cultivated up to the present time, is in the district of Orangeburg, S. C. Several thousand pounds are annually made in this district, and carried to Augusta, Columbia, and Charleston. There are two kinds of indigo—the tame and the wild. The former requires to be sown annually, the latter once in five or six years; the wild is the most valuable. The season for manufacturing commences in June—the weed is cut several times in the course of the summer, but only in the early part of the day, while the dew is on. The weed is put in a vat, and water poured on it; here it remains until the coloring matter is extracted; the fluid is then drawn off into another vat, and water, strongly impregnated with lime, is mixed with it; the whole being well and frequently stirred or beat up. When properly mixed, and an appearance of graining, it is left to settle. The water being run off, the sediment is taken out and put on frame to drain, and before it becomes hard it is cut into small pieces and placed on boards to dry; when perfectly dried it is broken into small fragments and put into boxes or barrels, when it is ready for market. The weed, after the coloring matter is taken from it, is a good manure, for which purpose it is used.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

FLORENCE AND KEYPORT PLANK ROAD.

At a meeting of the stockholders of this company, at Keyport, on the 9th of November, an extensive report of its condition and prospects was made by the president.

We have extracted such particulars from it as may be of interest to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

The Florence and Keyport Company has its origin in the fact that New York is the great commercial emporium of America, and requires facilities for ready access from every section of the country. The free competition of steamboats and railroads to the North and East, has reduced the rate of travel and competition in these directions to the lowest paying price, with a corresponding increase in the amount of travel and intercourse.

Similar facilities to the South have thus far been prohibited by the laws of New Jersey, which has maintained the travel across the State at more than five times the cost on any of the other roads leading to New York.

The exorbitant charge on this most important of all avenues is to the mass of the people a positive prohibition, and totally excludes and shuts out *nine-tenths* of the business and travel that would flow into New York from that quarter, at a price corresponding with every other channel.

The fare between New York and Albany is now less than one-tenth of what it was before the introduction of railroads, and the intercourse more than ten times what it then was, while the travel between New York and Philadelphia is but little increased, because the price is now higher than it was when railroads were unknown—a fact without a parallel.

A reduction of the fare on this most important of all routes to the same rate as prevails in every other, will be attended with a corresponding increase in the amount of travel and business, contributing to the wealth and prosperity of the metropolis.

The time has come for the opening of this route; the trade and business of New York require it, and the millions of people who are now denied all access to the chief city of the Union, will no longer be restrained.

The *only route* for all this additional business is by steamboat through the Narrows in as straight a line as practicable, to a point on the Jersey shore, and thence by railroad in such direction as public necessity may demand.

To accommodate this trade will require more than hourly intercourse with New York, and give to the point where these roads terminate, and where this constant intercourse is maintained, a value and importance not exceeded by any location contiguous to New York.

An examination of the map of New Jersey and the Coast Survey will show, what practical inquiry has confirmed, that there is but one point on the Raritan Bay capable of adaptation to the purposes as a harbor for a large class of vessels. This point, contiguous to Keyport, has been purchased by the Florence and Keyport Company, and is now undergoing the improvements necessary to test its availability.

A Dock and Basin are in course of construction, sufficient to accommodate and furnish a safe harbor for the largest class of steamboats; and good roads are being opened, making it accessible to the surrounding country in every direction, as the depot and thoroughfare for all the business and travel from New York to the South.

The property of the Company, embracing nearly 3 miles of the shore, consists of about 1,000 acres, part of which has been laid out as a town by the opening and grading of streets, and preparing it for a demand for improvement, beyond the most sanguine expectations of the Company.

A similar location on the Delaware has been purchased, but has not yet been conveyed to the Company.

Of the capital stock, consisting of 20,000 shares, 10,000 shares have been issued in payment for the property at Keyport. The remainder is applicable to the property on the Delaware, when conveyed. The entire property is divided into 20,000 lots of 25 by 100 feet each. It is subject to no debt, nor has the company power to contract any. Its sole business is to sell and convey lots, at a price fixed by the charter, to wit: one share of stock and $100 in cash for each lot. The stock received in payment for lots will be cancelled. Thus the Company will at all times hold one lot for every share of its outstanding stock, while the whole cash receipt will be applicable to a dividend among the remaining stockholders.

The sale of lots at Keyport, now about to be made, is done in consequence of numerous applications for those lying immediately contiguous to the improvements in progress, at the price fixed by the company. It is believed they will command much above that rate. The excess in value properly belongs to the stockholders in common, and not to those who may chance to be the first applicants for the lots.

Of the value of the stock, $100 has been assigned as its nominal par rate, on the ground that $200 was the minimum cash price for a town lot in any location suitable for improvement, and as being very far below the usual selling price in towns inferior to Keyport, and possessing none of its prospective advantages, which, it is believed, give to each of these lots, and the share of stock which represents it, a value above the low price of $100.

The rate of dividend to accrue to the stockholders, it will readily be perceived is a question entirely of time.

Should the growth of these towns be as rapid as the sudden introduction of an entire new business of the magnitude of that which must eventually occupy this channel appears to indicate, the sales of lots at this price must be large, and the dividends proportionately great, while in the entire absence of debt or of any expenditure, the whole receipt is applicable to that object, and with even a slow growth can never fail of a semi-annual dividend.

For the half year ending January next, it is estimated that the sales of lots will not fall far short of 400.

Should this calculation be realized, the cash receipts at the rate fixed by the Company, one hundred dollars per lot, will amount to forty thousand dollars, or a dividend of $4 per share on the 9,600 shares which will then be outstanding.

COMPARATIVE TABLE SHOWING THE COST AND EXPENSES OF SEVEN RAILROADS OF MASSACHUSETTS FOR THE YEARS 1850 AND 1851.

COMPILED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY GEORGE A. HAMILTON, ESQ.

Names of roads.	1850. Total cost.	1851. Total cost.	Cost per mile of single track.	Cost per mile of single track.	Cost of buildings per mile of track.	Cost of buildings per mile of track.	Cost of equip. per m. of track.	Cost of equip. per m. of track.	Cost of fuel per mile run.	Cost of fuel per mile run.
Boston and Worcester.....	$4,882,648 23	$4,862,748 00	$38,598 00	$38,440 70	$5,966 06	$5,991 26	$4,230 98	$4,180 38	18,340	17,161
Boston and Maine.....	4,021,606 59	4,090,452 48	31,418 80	31,708 98	3,688 56	3,933 48	2,375 76	2,582 98	12,173	14,203
Western.....	9,963,708 84	9,953,758 84	47,447 66	47,398 85	1,700 46	1,700 46	4,393 27	4,364 70	16,045	16,284
Boston and Lowell.....	1,945,646 68	1,945,646 68	36,710 31	36,710 31	14,228 31	14,228 31	3,308 40	3,308 40	15,960	19,062
Boston and Providence.....	3,416,232 51	3,469,599 38	45,549 76	46,261 32	.....	6,041 60	.....	2,224 78	17,504	17,838
Connecticut River.....	1,798,825 13	1,801,592 36	34,592 79	34,646 00	2,101 61	2,195 84	3,606 85	3,606 89	10,339	10,846
Fitchburg	3,552,282 59	3,612,486 97	27,537 07	28,003 77	3,186 11	3,381 88	3,277 05	3,328 09	14,331	15,215

	Cost of oil per mile run.	Cost of oil per mile run.	General expenses per mile run.	General expenses per mile run.	Freight department per mile run.	Freight department per mile run.	Passenger department per mile run.	Passenger department per mile run.	Repairs of engines per mile run.	Repairs of eng'n per mile run.
Boston and Worcester.....	2,484	2,085	4,688	5,279	43,777	37,841	17,856	15,906	8,547	9,145
Boston and Maine.....	1,637	1,686	2,596	2,412	35,770	33,932	13,364	13,908	5,142	4,650
Western.....	2,209	2,148	3,272	3,599	*	†	*	†	6,139	5,545
Boston and Lowell.....	955	1,054	6,919	8,719	60,584	62,474	14,460	13,032	10,892	11,289
Boston and Providence.....	1,309	1,119	3,703	2,738	33,216	27,982	14,018	14,760	3,988	4,461
Connecticut River.....	1,451	1,343	4,892	3,265	33,649	38,914	17,635	14,649	6,143	8,850
Fitchburg.....	1,678	1,533	3,131	2,316	41,268	40,582	12,339	14,331	4,016	4,943

	Repairs of passenger cars per mile run.	Repairs of passenger cars per mile run	Repairs of freight cars per mile run.	Repairs of freight cars per mile run.	Repairs of road per mile run.	Repairs of road per mile run.	Whole cost per mile run.	Whole cost per mile run.	P. ct. of earnings for expenses.	P. ct. of earn'gs for expen's.
Boston and Worcester.....	3,408	5,042	12,139	11,151	12,843	8,017	91,320	88,765	52.5	55.6
Boston and Maine.....	4,601	3,059	5,956	4,764	10,487	11,805	61,776	66,053	48.6	48.2
Western.....	6,784	6,370	11,059	11,498	8,107	4,574	79,080	77,169	44.3	44.2
Boston and Lowell.....	3,655	3,108	9,315	5,846	10,568	11,153	109,275	106,973	63.4	65 5
Boston and Providence.....	2,454	3,718	5,299	3,353	7,375	9,094	64,270	70,287	43.6	47.1
Connecticut River.....	4,904	4,507	8,316	9,885	8,405	10,506	89,714	73,611	71.4	57.6
Fitchburg.....	2,587	6,004	7,791	8,332	5,242	8,892	68,478	83,457	46.6	60.1

* These items are combined under one head, therefore no division can be made. † Ditto.

Names of roads.	1850. Receipts of passenger trains per mile run.	1851. Receipts of passenger trains per mile run.	Receipts of freight trains per mile run.	Receipts of freight trains per mile run.
Boston and Worcester	$1 42	$1 41	$2 27	$1 91
Boston and Maine	1 13	1 19	2 44	2 19
Western	2 30	2 23	1 65	1 56
Boston and Lowell	1 17	1 08	3 30	3 21
Boston and Providence	1 22	1 28	2 08	1 94
Connecticut River	1 05	0 99	1 94	2 17
Fitchburg	0 99	0 98	2 52	2 14

	Average No. passengers per train.	Average No. passengers per train.	Average No. tons freight per train.	Average No. tons freight per train.
Boston and Worcester	74	74	66	54
Boston and Maine	57	69	58	53
Western	85	83	56	51
Boston and Lowell	64	55	87	88
Boston and Providence	44	50	36	31
Connecticut River	34	33	40	41
Fitchburg	56	58	77	61

STATISTICS OF MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

We give below tabular statements of the operations of four railroads in Massachusetts, (the Eastern, the Boston and Maine, Boston and Lowell, and Taunton Branch.) These tables show the cost, value of stock, gross receipts, running expenses, net income, and dividends of each railroad for the last ten years. In the *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1852, (vol. xxvii., page 252,) we published a similar statement of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, and in September, (same year and volume, page 379,) a similar one of the Western (Massachusetts) Railroad:—

Eastern Railroad. Incorporated in 1836. Opened throughout November 9, 1840. Length, 74 miles,* including branches. Length of double track, 16 miles. Cost, January 1, 1852, $3,614,725.

Years.	Cost.	Value of stock per share.	Gross receipts.	Running expenses.	Net income.	Div. p. c.
1842	....	$100	$269,169	$119,040	$150,129	6
1843	.....	89	279,562	104,641	174,921	6
1844	$2,388,600	104½	337,238	109,319	227,919	7½
1845	2,406,400	112	350,150	116,840	233,310	8
1846	2,471,600	104	371,339	132,556	238,783	8
1847	2,815,100	108	424,841	135,088	289,753	8
1848	2,937,200	104	479,158	182,216	296,942	8
1849	3,095,400	104	517,929	183,980	333,949	8
1850	3,119,300	101	539,076	185,218	353,858	8
1851	3,120,400	104½	502,054	195,399	306,655	8
Total	.....		$4,070,516	$2,464,292	$2,606,224	7 11-20

Boston and Maine Railroad. Incorporated in 1833. Incorporated originally as the Andover and Wilmington Railroad. In 1837, the road was extended to Haverhill, and in 1839 to New Hampshire State line. In 1841, it was united with the Boston and Maine Railroad, in New Hampshire, and the whole line was then called "The Boston and Maine Railroad." Opened through in 1843. Length, including branches, 83 miles. Length of double track, 29 miles. Cost, January 1, 1852, $4,099,400.

* Including the Eastern Railroad in New Hampshire, which is leased to, and operated by, the Massachusetts Company.

Years.	Cost.	Value of stock per share.	Gross receipts.	Running expenses.	Net income.	Div. p. c.
1842.....	.....	$79	$155,880	$79,279	$76,601	6
1843.....	$1,240,300	83	178,745	91,755	86,990	6
1844.....	1,384,000	103	233,101	127,621	105,480	6½
1845.....	1,485,500	109	287,063	139,335	147,728	7
1846.....	1,935,100	111	349,137	165,520	183,617	7
1847.....	2,626,700	112	511,505	205,026	306,479	9
1848.....	3,021,200	112	511,628	256,534	255,094	8½
1849.....	3,571,800	109	522,335	258,495	263,810	5½
1850.....	3,930,000	103	594,963	289,478	305,485	5
1851.....	4,021,600	106	633,095	305,068	328,027	7
Total.....			$3,977,452	$1,918,111	$2,059,341	av. 6¼

Boston and Lowell Railroad. Incorporated in 1830. Opened throughout, June, 1835. Length, 26 miles. Length of double track, 26 miles. Cost, January 1, 1852, $1,945,600.

Years.	Cost.	Value of stock per share.	Gross receipts.	Running expenses.	Net income.	Div. p. c.
1842.....	$1,834,900	$595	$278,310	$131,013	$147,297	8
1843.....	1,978,300	595	277,315	109,367	167,948	8
1844.....	1,863,700	640	316,999	165,257	151,652	8
1845.....	1,902,500	580	356,067	175,042	181,025	8
1846.....	1,932,600	575	384,102	207,987	176,115	8
1847.....	1,940,400	572	448,555	249,225	199,330	8
1848.....	1,956,700	550	461,839	266,516	191,823	8
1849.....	2,013,700	550	416,488	26 ,904	155,584	8
1850.....	*1,945,600	556	406,471	256,508	149,913	8
1851.....	1,945,600	570	409,153	267,035	142,118	8
Total.....			$3,754,659	$2,088,854	$1,665,805	av. 8

Taunton Branch Railroad. Incorporated in 1835. Opened in 1836. Length, 11 miles, single track. Cost, January 1, 1852, $307,100.

Years.	Cost.	Value of stock per share.	Gross receipts.	Running expenses.	Net income.	Div. p. c.
1842.....	$250,000	$112	$77,170	$54,850	$22,320	8
1843.....	.....	112	74,251	50,866	23,285	8
1844.....	.....	125	96,687	69,328	27,359	8
1845.....	.....	118	116,537	81,504	35,033	8
1846.....	.....	...	123,067	90,903	32,164	8
1847.....	293,400	111	113,910	85,695	28,215	8
1848.....	303,700	113	108,101	89,142	18,959	8
1849.....	305,100	112	108,398	84,979	23,419	8
1850.....	306,400	110	114,466	86,908	27,558	8
1851..... ...	307,100	111	131,293	104,291	27,002	8
Total.....			$1,063,880	$798,466	$265,414	av. 8

RATES OF FREIGHT ON THE VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

Articles appropriate to the First Class. Boxes of hats, bonnets, and furniture,

Articles appropriate to the Second Class. Boxes, bales of dry goods, feathers, shoes, saddlery, glass, paints, oils, drugs and confectionery.

Articles appropriate to the Third Class. Virginia domestics, sugar, coffee, liquor, bagging, rope, butter, cheese, manufactured tobacco, leather, hides, cotton yarns, copper, tin, sheet iron, hollow-ware, queens-ware, castings, hardware, marble, (dressed,) and other heavy articles not enumerated in special or fourth class rates.

Articles appropriate to the Fourth Class. Flour, (in sacks,) rice, pork, beef,

* A re-valuation of the property of the road caused the difference between this amount and the cost in 1849.

fish, lard, tallow and bacon, (in casks, boxes or sacks,) beeswax, bales of rags, ginseng and dried fruit, bar iron, marble, (undressed) mill and grind stones, mill gearing.

PLASTER PER TON OF 2,000 LBS.		SALT PER BUSHEL OF 50 POUNDS.	
50 miles	$1 00	Carried East	8
100 miles	2 00		10
150 miles	2 50		11
200 miles	3 00		12

BETWEEN LYNCHBURG AND	Miles	First class per foot	Second class per 100 lbs	Third class per 100 lbs	Fourth class per 100 lbs	Flour per barrel	Wheat per bushel	Corn per bushel	Pig I'n & L'ad p'r ton of 2,000 lbs	Lumber, 1,000 feet, B. M.	Tobacco in hogsheads per 100 lbs.
Forest Depot..	10	3	10	10	10	10	3	3	1 50	2 00	7
Liberty.....	25	4	20	15	12	20	5	5	1 75	3 00	11
Buford's.....	39	5	25	18	15	25	6	6	2 00	3 50	14
Bonsack's.....	49	6	40	25	20	35	8¼	7	2 50	4 00	18
Big Lick	54	6	40	25	20	35	8¼	7	2 50	4 00	18
Salem.....	60	6	40	25	20	35	8¼	7	2 50	4 00	18
Christiansburg.	86	7	50	30	25	37	10	8	3 00	4 50	24
Newbern.....	106	9	60	40	30	40	11	9	3 50	5 50	30
Wytheville....	136	10	65	45	35	45	12	10	4 00	6 50	32
Marion	163	11	70	50	37	48	13	11	4 50	7 00	35
Abingdon.....	190	12	75	55	40	52	14	12	5 00	8 00	38
State Line....	205	14	80	60	45	55	15	13	5 50	9 00	40

INFLUENCE OF RAILROADS ON AGRICULTURE.

A Boston cotemporary has some just remarks on the influence of railroads on the agriculture of New England, as follows :—

It is doubtless within the recollection of many that when our system of railroads was started there was a general opposition to it among the farmers, especially in the New England States, lest their interest should be thereby seriously damaged. It was feared that this new medium of transportation would glut our markets with Western produce, and reduce the price of all agricultural products, so as to put it out of our power to compete with the more fertile regions of the West.

But those fears have not been realized. There has been no such falling off in the prices of produce as to make farming a less profitable business than it has heretofore been. The demand for such articles as we raise has kept pace with the supply, and the average of prices has, as we believe, been fully equal, for a series of years, to that which was obtained for a similar series previous to the construction of railroads. The truth is, that the expenses of transportation tend to equalize prices, and that in this respect the farmer near to a good market, even if his land and labor be dear, has a compensating advantage over farmers at a distance, where the cost of production is low.

In the great staples of agriculture, it is doubtless true that we cannot, here in New England, produce a surplus for exportation. Nor is it desirable, so long as we have a larger population at home than as yet we can begin to supply. Our home market exhausts all, and more than all that we can produce. And if the prices of any of our productions should, from the abundant supplies brought from other States, decline to a low point, we must adapt ourselves to circumstances, and turn our hands to the raising of such articles as will pay a profit. This, indeed, has already been begun. Fruit and poultry were never raised in larger quantities in New England than at present, while in parts, at least, beef, pork, and grain, have fallen off. This is the part of

wisdom, and our farmers should be on the alert to give greater attention to the production of articles in which he will meet with the least competition.

We remember very distinctly when the project of the Western Railroad was first broached, and its claims were urged by one of its warmest advocates, P. P. F. Degrand, at one of the farmers' meetings at the State House. He was met with the objection that it would ruin the farmers on the seaboard—they could not compete with the West in raising the great staples of agriculture. and what shall they do with their farms? "Turn them," said the shrewd old gentleman, "into strawberry fields; that will make them pay!" The reply seemed almost to be the words of irony instead of soberness; and yet the day is at hand when there will be found to be more truth than poetry in it. In the neighborhood of our cities and large towns, the cultivation of the smaller fruits is largely and profitably carried on. And this species of garden culture is extending into the interior, along the line of our railroads, and is destined to become more and more extensively prosecuted. The hills of New England have not yet become barren: orchards and vines may be grown upon them yet, with ample returns, even if they should no longer profitably yield the same products as in the days of our forefathers.

But of some of our staple products, railroads have by no means lessened the price. Milk, butter, and cheese, have continued to command about the same rates as heretofore. Hay, good English hay, the price of which in the market, it was thought, would be seriously affected by the substitution of the iron horse for the animal horse, still keeps up at a remunerating point, and is more largely raised in New England than ever. The fact is found to be, that the animal horse did not go out of use quite as fast as it was prophesied he would. He was only removed from the old stage-coach to be harnessed to the omnibus and the express-wagon; and he now requires an equal quantity of hay to keep him going as he did in his former occupation. There are probably more horses to day in Massachusetts than at any previous period in her history, and the demand for good horses never was greater, nor the prices paid for them higher.

Horses—the good old fashioned horse of flesh and blood, bone and sinew—are by no means extinct among us. The iron horse has proved himself to be only a breeder of other horses. The farmer who feared that Dobbin's days were numbered—his glory departed—when the steam-pipe sent its shrill whistle into his heart, now plucks up courage, and sets a higher value than ever on his sure-footed beast. Neither is the farmer himself gone into retirement, since the air-line railroad cut its way through his farm—we rather think he has made them pay a consideration for the land they took from him—he is now at work on the acres that remain harder than ever; and by proper cultivation, proper selection of seeds, better adaptation of crops, and closer attention to the wants of the consumer, he finds himself still alive and flourishing—notwithstanding his fears that the railcars, when they first whisked by, would take the very breath out of his body.

PERSONS EMPLOYED ON RAILWAYS IN ENGLAND.

It appears from a parliamentary return recently issued, that the number of persons employed on railways in the United Kingdom on the 30th of June, 1851, was 106,501, and on 30th of June, 1850, 118,859; showing a decrease of 12,358 persons, including 10,667 laborers.

The number employed on railways in England and Wales on the 30th June, 1851, was	80,612
In Scotland	8,802
In Ireland	17,087
In June, 1850, the numbers were, in England and Wales	78,570
In Scotland	16,495
In Ireland	23,794
The number of miles open at the end of June, 1851, was.....miles	6,698½
In course of construction	735
The length open at the end of June, 1850, was	6,307½
In course of construction	868½
The number of miles in abeyance at the end of June, 1851, was	4,525½
The total length authorized at that date was	11,959

On lines open for traffic in England and Wales the number of persons employed on 5,200 miles of railway, having 1,669 stations, was 51,979, and at the corresponding period of 1850, 46,787 persons, on 4,901 miles of railway, having 1,610 stations. On lines open in Scotland the number of persons employed on 960¼ miles of railway, having 304 stations, was 8,107; and at the corresponding period of 1850, 8,516 persons on 891¼ miles of railway, having 291 stations. The number of persons employed on 537½ miles of railway, having 134 stations, on 30th June, 1851, was 3,477; and at the corresponding period of 1850, on 515 miles of railway, having 129 stations, 4,671 persons were employed. The increase of mileage in England and Wales, during the year ending 30th June, 1851, was 299 miles, with 59 stations; in Scotland, 69 miles and 13 stations; and in Ireland, 23 miles and 5 stations.

The number of persons employed on 735 miles of railway in course of construction, at the end of June, 1851, was 42,938, of whom 34,948 were laborers; and at the corresponding period of 1850, 58,885 persons were employed on 868 miles of railway. The length of railway in course of construction in England, at the end of June, 1851, was 537 miles, on which 28,633 persons were employed; in Scotland, 21¼ miles, on which 695 persons were employed, as against 81½ miles in June, 1850, and 7,979 persons employed; and in Ireland, on 176 miles in course of construction, 13,610 persons were employed, as against 192 miles at the corresponding period and 19,123 persons. The number of miles in abeyance in England and Wales being 2,926, in Scotland 796 miles, and in Ireland 803¼ miles.

Of the 106,501 persons employed on railways in the United Kingdom on 30th of June, 1851, there were—

Secretaries and managers	267
Treasurers	37
Engineers	234
Superintendents	504
Storekeepers	219
Accountants and cashiers	208
Inspectors and time-keepers	942
Station-masters	1,504
Draughtsmen	182
Clerks	5,168
Foremen	1,681
Engine-drivers	2,258
Assistant engine-drivers	2,387
Guards and breakmen	2,252
Switchmen	1,865
Gatekeepers	1,341
Policemen and watchmen	1,861
Porters and messengers	9,865
Platelayers	5,605
Artificers	18,258
Laborers	49,758
Miscellaneous	105

KEY WEST AS A DEPOT FOR CALIFORNIA STEAMERS.

A correspondent, writing from Key West, (Florida) attempts to show that Key West has ample means and resources, unbounded facilities, and can give quicker dispatch to steamers than Havana, and should therefore be made the great depot for California steamers. That Key West is a United States port, inhabited by people whose interest, feelings, and patriotism, are for and with the United States; that she possesses a good harbor, and has the means and resources necessary for a place of transit for passengers, and a depot for supplies for the steamships employed in transporting the United States mails, and citizens of the United States to and from New York and California, independent of all other considerations, are reasons sufficient for making so important a change.

Our Key West correspondent thus sums up the reasons for making Key West a

half-way house for coal, watering, and provisioning the vessels employed in the California trade.

1st. The distance from New York to Central America, is less on a line passing through Key West, than measured *via* of Havana; and from New York to Tehuantepec the advantage of distance is greatly in favor of Key West.

2d. A steamer bound to Chagres *via* of Havana, must twice cross the Gulf Stream, and in a diagonal line stem its rapid current for full twenty-four hours. If passing through Key West, the steamer would keep upon the edge of the stream, where the eddy would be in its favor and the crossing of the Gulf avoided.

3d. Smoother seas and calmer weather are found upon the edge of the Gulf Stream than in its center, particularly in that part lying between Savannah and Tortugas, which would lessen the passage made *via* of Key West.

4th. A steamer can enter the harbor of Key West at any hour of the night, immediately enter at the custom-house, make fast alongside of the coal wharf, and, without a moment's delay, proceed to coaling and watering, and, if necessary, leave before dawn of day. Should she take the Havana route, and arrive off the Moro Castle after sun-down, she must anchor and wait until 9 o'clock on the following day, before any communication is made with the shore; and the day is well nigh gone before coaling is commenced, thus consuming nearly twenty hours of her valuable time.

5th. A steamer can be coaled at Key West, as has been fairly proved, in less time than at Charleston, as soon as at New York, and in one-fourth of the time consumed at Havana.

6th. Vessels not wishing pilots, can enter the harbor of Key West free of pilotage; at Havana, pilotage is invariably enforced.

7th. Coal can be landed as cheap, can be stored in yards in immediate proximity to the landing, and be placed in the bunkers by man or horse power, in less time and at less expense than at Havana, where the coal is passed on board in baskets from launches alongside, a slow and tedious process.

8th. Provisions of all kinds can be purchased, at prices in favor of Key West, to the amount of duty levied on the same at Havana—they all being exported to that city from the United States. Fresh meats are sold at less rates in our *now* small market, than the steamers pay the Havana butchers. Were there an increased demand, prices would come down. Tampa Bay, two days' sail from Key West, is perhaps the finest cattle market in the South. Full grown cattle can be bought in that town, to an unlimited extent, for $10 per head. Green turtle, weighing from one to five hundred pounds, abound on our coast, and can be delivered for three cents per pound. No better meat can be taken to sea than turtle. It can be kept for twenty days alive, requires no food nor care save watering, and the entire animal is eatable. It can be roasted, stewed, boiled, fried, force-balled, and souped, to satisfy the appetites of salted Californians. The fish market of Havana is supplied by our smacks, so there can be no competition in that line. Our waters are alive with the finest varieties, and we could fill half the markets in the States.

9th. The only articles that Havana could furnish the steamers at less rates, are fruit and vegetables. But we doubt whether she would be able, in one year from the day that Key West is made a depot, to compete with the Yankees of Florida in these productions. Should there be a demand to justify the expenditures, half the State would be turned into fruiteries and vegetable gardens, and the result would show that the Spaniard, with his rich soil and mild climate, had found a successful competitor.

10th. There is no sweeter water carried to sea than that afforded by our large cisterns. Rain water never becomes sour, nor does it acquire an unpleasant bilgey taste; but it improves with age, and remains pure for years. Our water is superior to the Havana River water, and is sold for the same sum.

11th. Passengers meet, at Key West, with no obstacles in landing. There are no landing permits, nor passports, nor boat hire, nor danger of any kind in getting on shore. Nor is there extortion of any kind. They are upon the soil of freedom, and among their own people. The above are some of the reasons why Key West should become a depot for the United States Mail Steamships.

12th. A telegraphic wire can be carried across the Key and along the coast, connecting at Savannah with the New York lines, at as little expense as over any like distance in the States, and thus enable the California news to be published in New York four days in advance of the mails. As no wire can be carried across the Gulf, from Havana, a telegraph is impracticable from that city.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The twelfth general report of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, for the year 1851, has just been printed, and presented to both Houses of Parliament. The report is the most interesting and elaborate which has yet appeared, and the growing importance of the subject must command for it the attentive consideration of the public. The Commissioners state that the total emigration from the United Kingdom in the twenty years ending with 1851, has amounted to 2,640,848; but of this emigration more than one-half has taken place in the last five years—the largest number who emigrated in any one year having been 129,851, in 1846. The numbers who emigrated within the last five years were as follows:—

1847	258,270	1850	280,849
1848	248,089	1851	335,966
1849	299,498		

It will, therefore, be seen that, although the progress has not been uniform, the general result shows an immense increase, the emigration in 1851 having exceeded the largest emigration of any preceding year by 36,468, or 12.17 per cent, and the average of four years by 64,290, or 23.66 per cent. Such an emigration, if drawn equally from all parts of the United Kingdom, would seriously affect the progress of population. But the rate at which it is now proceeding, so far exceeds its rate during the majority of the years included in the last census, that, unless some very great change takes place shortly, or the loss be supplied from other quarters, the next census will show a much larger reduction of the population than the last. The emigration of 1851, while it nearly doubled the estimated average emigration of the preceding ten years, exceeded any probable increase of the population by nearly 4 to 1. But this calculation, unfavorable as it appears, is clearly below the truth, for the classes who emigrate include a large proportion of the youngest, the healthiest, and most energetic of the adult population, on which the excess of births over deaths mainly depends. Upon the prospect of the extinction of the Irish race in Ireland, the Commissioners say:—

"We should be disposed to believe that those who remain at home, including an unusual proportion of the old, the most feeble, and most destitute, do not, at the most, do more than replace by births their losses by deaths. If such be the case, it would follow that the annual decrease of the population in Ireland is not less than the annual amount of the emigration, and that unless the emigration be soon arrested, the country will be deserted by its original population."

The money sent home from North America during the four years from 1848 to 1851, or contributed as prepaid passage-money, amounted to no less a sum than £2,947,000. The amount so paid in—

1848	£160,000	1850	£957,000
1849	540,000	1851	990,000

Of the whole number who left the United Kingdom in 1851—

Went to the United States	267,357
To British North America	42,605
To Australia	21,532
To other places	4,472

Of the number who made the United States their destination—

Sailed from Liverpool, (more than nineteen-twentieths)	196,881
From London, (not quite four-sevenths)	17,370
From Scotland	10,864
From Ireland	38,418

To the 267,357 who proceeded direct to the United States must be added 18,000

who went through Canada, making a total of 285,858 emigrants from the United Kingdom to the United States during the year, or about seventeen-twentieths of the whole unassisted emigration. But, although the number of emigrants who settle in the British North American Provinces has not increased, and is not likely to increase at all in proportion to the general emigration, it must be borne in mind that the emigration to those Provinces has not fallen off, but, on the contrary, has maintained a fair progress up to the present time. During the four years preceding 1847, that emigration amounted to 121,684, or 30,421 a year. During the four years ending 31st December last, it amounted to 147,998, or an average of 36,999 a year.

The year 1847 is excluded, because it was an exceptional year, which could not fairly be taken into account. The Commissioners believe that, including transient emigrants, an immigration of from 35,000 to 40,000 is sufficient in ordinary years to supply the labor market of British North America. The amount expended out of the public funds for the conveyance of emigrants was, up to the end of 1851, about £800,000, of which about £4,500 was derived from Parliamentary votes for sending out free emigrants to those colonies which have received convicts, and £102,000 obtained from the emigrants themselves. The remaining sum of about £650,000 was furnished from the land revenues of New South Wales and South Australia, or the general revenue of the Cape of Good Hope.

The emigration which has taken place during the first four months of the present year promises to exceed that of any former year. The discovery of gold fields in California and Australia has, of course, tended to swell the tide to a great extent; but, even if those discoveries had not taken place, there is every reason to believe that the emigration of 1852 would have been unparalleled. The total emigration from the twelve ports in the United Kingdom, at which there are emigration officers, amounted to 103,216. Of these—

Went to the United States	83,029
To British North America	8,104
To the Australian Colonies	11,258
To other places	885

Assuming that the tide of emigration, during the remaining eight months of the year, does not exceed the rate at which it flowed in the months of January, February, March, and April, the total emigration in 1852 would amount to 412,864 persons, being an excess, as compared with 1851, of no less than 155,492. In all probability, however, the emigration from the United Kingdom, during the present year, will consideraly exceed 500,000 persons.

POPULATION AND TERRITORY OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE IN 1851.

Upon an extent of 664,400 square kilometres, (a kilometre is equal to 1,093¼ yards —*i. e.*, 6¼ yards less than five-eighths of our mile,) the Austrian Empire possesses, according to the last census taken in 1846, a total population of 37,443,000 souls. Thus, with an extent of territory greater by some thirty thousand square miles than France, Belgium, and the Netherlands united, its population is about seven millions less than that of those countries. Broken up into grand territorial divisions, or natural groups of provinces, the figures above are thus distributed:—

Provinces.	Extent in square kilometres.	Population.	No. inhabitants p'r. sq. kilo.
German, (in the Confederation)	197,400	12,097,000	61
Polish, or Gallician	87,500	5,106,000	58
Italian, (Lombardy, Venice)	45,300	4,928,000	109
Hungarian and Illyrian	334,200	14,820,000	44
Total	664,400	36,951,000	56

Compared with the whole population and the whole territorial extent of the Austrian Empire, the several provincial divisions above, present the following proportions:

Provinces.	Square kilometres.	Inhabitants.
German, (in the Confederation)	30 in 100	33 in 100
Polish, or Gallician	13 in 100	14 in 100
Italian, (Lombardy, Venice)	7 in 100	13 in 100
Hungarian and Illyrian	50 in 100	40 in 100

Concerning the Hungarian provinces the results above offered are not given as exact.

They are approximative only. Since 1846, the date of the last census, the annexation of the city and territory of Cracow has added 500 square miles to the superficial extent of the Austrian Empire, and 141,000 to the number of its inhabitants; and as the population of the empire increases usually at the rate of 1 per cent per annum, the total population in January, 1848, may be estimated at 38,333,000 souls.

Political troubles and internal wars have not admitted of any sensible augmentation since that period. During the peace which lasted from 1821 to 1840, the general increase of the population, according to the calculations of Dr. Beecher, was about 6,000,000 or nearly 20 per cent. The increase was greater than that of France, though less than that of England, Prussia, or Russia.

The great territorial divisions above mentioned are subdivided as follows:—

The German countries of Austria comprise Lower Austria, with Vienna, its capital; Upper Austria, with Saltsburg, the Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola; the Littoral, or sea-board, with Trieste, Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia. Upper and Lower Austria are the only provinces of the empire exclusively inhabited by Germans. The Sclavonians are numerous, and in some parts predominate even, in the other provinces—with the exception of the Tyrol, whose southern valleys have an Italian population. The Italians also predominate in the ports of the Littoral.

Austrian Poland comprises only Gallicia with the former Republic of Cracow, and the Buckovina, which was once a Turkish province. The Poles and the *Ruthenes* or *Rousniaks* (people of Russian origin) form the mass of the population; but among them are also found many Germans, Moldavians, Armenians, and above all, Jews.

Austrian Italy is composed of Lombardy and the Venetian States, and is inhabited by a mixed population of foreigners.

The Hungarian and Illyrian counties are composed now of Hungary proper and Servian Woyvodia, lately formed, and which corresponds in the main to the former Banat of Temiswar; Transylvania, which, united to Hungary during the revolution, has again been separated; of the Illyrian Banat, composed of Croatia and Esclavonia, former dependencies of the Hungarian crown; and finally of Dalmatia, between Turkey and the Adriatic.

The Hungarians, or Magyars, predominate in Hungary and Transylvania; and the Illyrian Sclavonians, (Croats, Servians, Dalmatians, and Morlachians,) prevail in the provinces, which extend to the south of the first of these two countries. The Wallachians, or Romanians, form an element in the population of Transylvania, as dense as that of the Slovachians in the north of Hungary. The Germans, everywhere numerous in the cities, are found too among the farmers of what is called the Saxon country, and in some Hungarian districts. There are also Jews, and many wandering Bohemians, or Gipseys, &c.

In the provinces bordering on Turkey, excepting Dalmatia, military government prevails. The seaports of this last province—partly inhabited by Italians—are, with the port of Fiume, the only sea ports in that vast extent of country.

The average density of the population in Austria, though less than that of Great Britain and France, is greater than that of Prussia. The most populous provinces of the empire, in proportion to their extent, are Lombardy, which exhibits the *maximum* of 122 inhabitants per square kilometre; the Venetian States; Moravia; Bohemia; and Lower Austria. The least populous provinces, on the other hand, are the Tyrol, containing but 30 inhabitants to the square kilometre, (a *minimum* which is explained by the country's being covered with gigantic mountains;) the military frontier of Illyrian Hungary; Carinthia; Carniola, and Transylvania.

The population of the empire is divided into about 800 cities, 2,500 market towns, (*bourgs*,) and 65,000 villages. The largest number of cities is in the German provinces. The Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom has fewer *communes*, large enough to be called cities, but has more important capitals. The Hungarian countries, where capital cities are more rare, possess many large market towns, and populous villages, striking by their size, but which bear the mark of Asiatic rather than of Western civilization.

In general it is remarked that in Austria the concentration of the population into large cities is still less than in other parts of Germany and in France, and much less than in England, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Nevertheless, there are to be found in the Austrian States, according to the census of 1846, 136 communes, of which the civil population exceeded 10,000, to wit:—5 communes containing more than 100,000 inhabitants each; 9 containing between 40,000 and 100,000; 10 containing between 30,000 and 40,000; 15 containing between 20,000 and 30,000; and 97 containing between 10,000 and 20,000.

In 1846, the population of the 13 principal cities, which by their size, or from their commercial importance, were of the most prominence, was, excluding foreigners and troops in garrison, as follows:—

Vienna	408,000	Padua	54,000
Milan	156,000	Verona	52,000
Prague	215,000	Gratz	51,000
Pesth	101,000	Brunn	45,000
Lemberg	71,000	Buda	40,500
Trieste	55,000	Presburg	40,200
Debreczin	55,000		

Including the population immediately outside of Trieste proper, the number of inhabitants of that city would be 80,000.

It is important to add concerning the Hungarian and Italian cities which suffered most from the events of 1848 and 1849, that the figures in the above table may be found now too high. The population of Pesth, for instance, has been reduced to 84,000.

According to Springer, the number of inhabitants in the Austrian Empire engaged in industrial occupations, strictly so called, (and who concentrate, from preference, in cities and market towns,) was increased between the years 1821 and 1840 from 2,300,000 to 3,000,000, while the agricultural laborers constituted a solid mass of 23,000,000 souls.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

"NAVAL DRY-DOCKS OF THE UNITED STATES."

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for August we briefly reviewed the work of Mr. Stewart, on the Naval Dry-Docks of the United States, giving at the same time a few extracts. Subsequently, we received a note from W. J. McAlpine, Esq., charging Mr. Stewart with plagiarism. That note we published in our October number. We now, in justice to the author of the work on Naval Dry-Docks, &c., give place to the subjoined explanation of Mr. Norton, the publisher, who, we presume, speaks by the authority of the author:—

FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*:—

DEAR SIR:—My attention has been called to a letter published in the October number of your valuable Journal from Wm. J. McAlpine, in which he states that the extract in your August number, taken from "Naval Dry-Docks of the United States," of which work I am the publisher, was nearly word for word published some two years and a half since in Appleton's Dictionary of Mechanics and Engineering, and that he thinks it due to the Messrs. Appleton, who have the *copyright* of the Dictionary, and *to himself*, the contributor of the *article referred to*, to correct your notice of the work in question.

In justice to all the parties interested, I beg leave to state that, so far from having infringed upon the copyright of the Messrs. Appleton, the article as it appeared in their (Byrnes') Dictionary in May, 1850, was published in the supplement to the New York *Tribune*, July 6th, 1849, "WORD FOR WORD," over the signature of "Richelieu," which name has been adopted for years past by a well-known writer for that paper, and for which he would have received due credit, had it not been recorded "word for word" at the Navy Department in October, 1847, nearly two years prior to the date of the article in the *Tribune*.

By reference to the preface of the "Naval Dry-Docks," you will notice that the author states that "care has been taken to refer constantly to the official records of the Navy Department, and the reports of the engineers of the several docks during their construction, for valuable and reliable information," and a perusal of the book will show conclusively, I think, that the author has given (as I know it was his desire) "honor to whomsoever honor is due."

CHARLES B. NORTON.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY.

GEOGRAPHICAL DEPARTMENT OF THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY.

The Mercantile Library Association of New York have opened a geographical room for the deposit of maps, charts, nautical and astronomical surveys and geographical statistics. The shipping interests of New York *require* such a place of deposit, which will be accessible to them at *all times* and made valuable for matters of reference and information. No place seems more appropriate for the establishment of such a department than in a mercantile library. The want of a similar department has long been felt by the mercantile community of New York. This new enterprise bids fair to be of great practical utility to that large class of citizens, directly engaged in Commerce and navigation. The Commerce of New York is much larger than that of any other city in the United States; hence the necessity for some place where authentic and valuable information can at all times be obtained, which will serve to guide the mariner upon the "trackless deep." The getting and printing of accurate nautical information has become a subject of general national importance.

In former times mariners were left to acquire their knowledge from the shipwrecks of others, but this progressive age *demands* some other means for acquiring reliable hydrographical information. Although the department is but recently opened, the collection is believed to be by far the largest of any in this country, consisting in part of Lieut. MAURY'S wind and current Charts, Lieut. A. D. BACHE'S Charts of the Coast Survey, E. & G. W. BLUNT'S charts, besides many general and particular maps, all of which are open to the public *free of charge*. The present Board of Directors have entered upon this new enterprise with much zeal, and it is to be hoped that the subject will receive that careful investigation which the importance of it demands.

OF THE TAX OR DUTY ON FOREIGN COAL.

The Philadelphia *North American* predicts a short supply of coal next winter "for those markets which are inaccessible after the closing of navigation." The *Tribune*, with its ultra protectionist tendencies, says:—"If the duty on coal were utterly and forever abolished, and such duties imposed instead on iron and fabrics as would set our closed furnaces and idle factories at work once more, we have no doubt that the coal interest would be immensely and permanently benefited by the change."

The *Journal of Commerce* suggests the "propriety of *a total abolition of the duty on coal*, that the tribute now levied upon New England, New York, and New Jersey by Pennsylvania may, if possible, be diminished."

The *Independent*, in an able and well-considered paper on the question of a total abolition of the duty on coal, presents a few considerations in favor of petitioning Congress for a repeal of the coal tax, among which are the following:—

1. All the manufacturing and mechanical interests of the country that employ steam-power, would be benefited by the abolition of a duty of *thirty per cent ad valorem* on coal, which must have an effect upon the tariff of home prices in an article the consumption of which is so large an item in the cost of manufacturing.

2. The cost of *gas*—manufactured from bituminous coal—would be perceptibly diminished by the abolition of the duty on foreign coal. In Manchester, England, the price of gas is five shillings sterling—say $1 25—per thousand feet; in New York it is $3, and in New Haven $4. Why should we put a tax on light of 30 per cent *ad valorem*?

3. The commercial interest of the country would be greatly benefited by abolishing the duty on coal. Our leading exports—such as cotton and grain—are so much more bulky than the average of our imports that home freights are always light and the rates low. Indeed, vessels sometimes return in ballast, and they would more frequently bring coal as ballast, if our ports were free to its admission. But the duty on coal is a bar to its importation, and to that extent damages the freighting interest.

To remedy this in part a higher freight is assessed upon outward bound products, to the prejudice of the merchant and the producer.

It is impossible to get fairly at the ratio between out-freights and home-freights, because the out-freights are not established by a tariff, but fluctuate according to circumstances. Our first-class packets often bring home coal on owners' account, just to ballast the ship. This would be done more frequently, but duties must be paid in cash on the delivery of the goods, and this demand on coal at all seasons is a drawback on importation. The average freight on coal from Liverpool is about $3 per ton. It should be borne in mind here, as an important element in the calculation, that we would not look to Great Britain alone for our supplies of bituminous coal. Vast fields of this coal in Nova Scotia would pour their treasure into the lap of New York, and that too in exchange for breadstuffs, if coal were duty free. The freight from Nova Scotia would not add so much to the prime cost of coal there, but that if exempted from duty it could be sold in our market as cheaply as domestic coal. Is it worth while to shut out our farmers from a market in our own neighborhood, to cut off our coasters from a steady and remunerative freight, and to tax ourselves $1 50 per chaldron on coal for the sake of protecting mines worth thirty-six hundred millions of dollars—more than the gold mines of California—whose owners confess that at the highest rates they cannot supply the wants of the public!

4. The public generally, and especially the poorer classes, would be benefited by the repeal of the duty on coal. In Manchester, England, a chaldron of the best Winstanley and Orrell coal, weighing 3,584 lbs., is delivered for £1 sterling, or $4 80. For this coal we would pay ordinarily in the New York market from $10 to $11 a chaldron, the duty being 30 per cent *ad valorem*. The price of Pennsylvania coal in this market ranges from $4 25 to $7 50; $5 per ton of 2,000 lbs. would be a very low average. A few years ago in the winter and spring it advanced to $7 or $8, and during the past winter it has ranged nearly as high. The monopolists in Pennsylvania now threaten, by a combination, to keep up the prices for the coming season, and modestly inform us that an advance of 20 per cent upon the present prices is intended merely as a healthful stimulus upon their own minds, to induce them to meet the growing demands of the market. We prefer that the stimulus should be applied from another quarter. At the lowest average rates of domestic coal, the price of 3,584 lbs. would be about $9. This verifies the remark made to us by a large coal dealer, during the high prices, that if it were not for the duty he could sell English coal cheaper than American. At the same price we should uniformly use the English coal, and so would many of our fellow-citizens. A fair competition would keep down the price, so that the poor would be benefited. Let the experiment be tried. Next to cheap bread we should aim to provide CHEAP FUEL for the poor.

TALLEYRAND AND THE BANKER.

A banker, anxious about the rise and fall of stocks, came once to Talleyrand for information respecting the truth of a rumor that George III. had suddenly died, when the statesman replied in a confidential tone, "I shall be delighted if the information I have to give, be of any use to you." The banker was enchanted with the prospect of obtaining authentic intelligence from so high a source; and Talleyrand, with a mysterious air, continued, "Some say that the king of England is dead, others that he is not dead, for my own part I believe neither the one nor the other; I tell you this in confidence, but do not commit me." No better parody on modern diplomacy could easily be written.

INVENTION FOR NEGRO CLOTHING.

The *Natchez Free Trader* gives the following directions for making waterproof sacks for negroes, Mr. Johnson of the lower part of Concordia Parish being the discoverer:

"For a plantation of 50 or 100 negroes, take 20 gallons of linseed oil, into which mix three pounds of litharge, after the oil shall have been boiled a few moments. The litharge should be pulverized before being incorporated with the oil, and well stirred in.

"Previously an overcoat, or sack, should have been neatly made from common cotton cloth, called Domestics, long enough to reach below the knees, to be closely buttoned up in front.

"When the mixture of oil and litharge is boiling hot, immerse the garment, wring it as dry as possible, and let it hang in the sun for three days, when it will become completely waterproof, an overcoat for the negro, secure against storm or tempest, impervious to the wintry winds, or the chills of the nights. It will cost less than sixty cents per sack, and last one or two years."

THE BANKER'S SATURDAY NIGHT.

[FROM THE INDEPENDENT.]

How pleasant 'tis when I can say,
My work is done, 'tis Saturday,
My cash is settled, letters done,
My duties finished, every one.
'Tis passing sweet to us cashiers,
Whose labor circles with the years,
To close the Bank and turn the keys,
Then close the week with books and ease.
We read of one, and him we thank,
Who years ago first closed a Bank;
Rebuked cashiers, their desks o'erthrew,
And drove them out with whip cord too.
I often think of this in church,
When for my wandering thoughts I search;
In find them deep in moneyed schemes,
In dividends, or golden dreams;
I start! my sin is just the same
As that of old, though not in name;
I sin as much with moneyed thought,
As did the Jews of old, who brought
Their desks within the temple's range,
And shaved the green ones making change;
And should I suffer whips of cord.
I should but suffer just reward.
Yes, turn all thoughts of loss and gain
From out the place where God should reign;
Nor let such thoughts with footsteps rude
Upon your Sabbath hours intrude.

AN EYE TO BUSINESS.

We are often entertained, says an English journalist, by the tone of sentiment adopted in advertising a death. There is frequently a facetious union of puff and despondency. We will give a specimen of a "death:"—"Died on the 11th ultimo, at the shop in Fleet-street, Mr. Edward Jones, much respected by all who knew and dealt with him. As a man he was amiable, as a hatter upright and moderate. His virtues were beyond all price, and his beaver hats were only £1 4s. each. He has left a widow to deplore his loss, and a large stock to be sold cheap for the benefit of his family. He was snatched to the other world in the prime of life, and just as he had concluded an extensive purchase of felt, which he got so cheap that the widow can supply hats at a more reasonable charge than any house in London. His disconsolate family will carry on the business with punctuality."

A CREDITOR'S STRATAGEM TO COLLECT A DEBT.

A week or two ago, says the *Boston Herald*, four creditors started for Boston, in the same train of cars, for the purpose of attaching the property of a certain debtor in Farmington, in the State of Maine. He owed each one separately, and they each were suspicious of the object of the other, but dared not say a word about it. So they rode, acquaintances all, talking upon everything except that which they had most at heart. When they arrived at the depot at Farmington, which was three miles from

where the debtor did business, they found nothing to "put 'em over the road" but a solitary cab, towards which they all rushed. Three got in, and refused admittance to the fourth, and the cab started. The fourth ran after, and got upon the outside with the driver. He asked the driver if he wanted to sell his horse. He replied that he did not want to,—that he was not worth more than $50, but he would not sell him for that. He asked him if he would take $100 for him. "Yes," said he. The "fourth man" quickly paid over the money, took the reins and backed the cab up to a bank —slipped it from the harness, and tipped it up so that the door could not be opened, and jumped upon the horse's back and rode off "lick-a-ty-switch," while the "insiders" were looking out of the window, feeling like singed cats. He rode to a lawyer's, and got a writ made and served, and his debt secure, and got back to the hotel just as the "insiders" came up puffing and blowing. The cabman soon bought back his horse for $50. The "sold" men offered to pay that sum, if the fortunate one, who found property sufficient to pay his own debt, would not tell of it in Boston.

NO ANTAGONISM BETWEEN CAPITAL AND LABOR.

The Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, in one of his speeches at the dinner in Boston, given to BARING, the celebrated London Banker, argued in his felicitous style that there could be no antagonism between CAPITAL and LABOR:—

The owner of capital, said Mr. Everett, in England or America, really reaps the smallest portion of the advantages which flow from its possession—he being but a kind of head book-keeper or chief clerk to the business community. He may be as rich as Crœsus, but he can neither eat, drink, nor wear more than one man's portion. Mr. Everett said he remembered hearing a jest made about Mr. Astor's property, which contained, he thought, a great deal of meaning—a latent, practical philosophy. Some one was asked whether he would be willing to take care of all Mr. Astor's property —eight or ten millions of dollars—merely for his board and clothing.

"No," was the indignant answer, "do you think me a fool?"

"Well, rejoins the other, "that is all Mr. Astor himself gets for taking care of it; he's *found*, and that's all. The houses, the warehouses, the ships, the farms which he counts by the hundreds, and is obliged to take care of, are for the accommodation of others."

"But then he has the income, the rents of all this mighty property, five or six hundred thousand dollars per annum."

"Yes, but he can do nothing with his income but build more houses, and warehouses, and ships, or loan more money on mortgages for the convenience of others. He's *found*, and you can make nothing else out of it."

AMERICAN TRADE IN INDIA.

A writer in the London *Daily News*, is disturbed by the apprehension of American competition in the oriental trade. After alluding to the growth of the Russian Commerce in India, it urges some instant action of the East India Company to retain its ground, adding:—

Our Commerce cannot be forced like a cucumber, but must be reared like an infant. And this the Court neglects, to strangle it in its birth. America's incipient trade with the opposite coast, on which they hold no harbor, and where they have fought no battles, nor acquired large kingdoms, is already becoming more valuable than our own, and will grow into an extensive Commerce. Any mail may tell us that an American Consul is appointed to the Gulf.

Time, indeed, it was, that the Court should awaken from its nightmare. An American ship master will land a cargo on the Mekran coast at a less expense, than a cargo of British goods can be landed in Bombay; and the only way to defy such dangerous competition, is to make the most of the great advantages afforded by the Indus as the highway to Central Asia.

It is America, not Russia, we fear. All the world over taxes are being reduced; but in India we, three or four years ago, imposed "an additional *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent on importations of English goods," because our customs were falling.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Louisiana: Its History as a French Colony. Third Series of Lectures.* By CHARLES GAYARRE. 8vo., pp. 380. New York: John Wiley.

This is the third and last series of the Historical Lectures on Louisiana by this author. They embrace a period extending from the discovery of that State to 1769, when it was finally transferred by the French to the Spaniards, by whom it was subsequently held until retransferred to France, and by Napoleon to the United States in 1803. The latter period of the French dominion is recorded in many works, which thus furnished more ample and complete materials for this series than the previous ones. Taken together, these lectures form a detailed and accurate history of Louisiana while a French colony. Unquestionably they furnish the most complete and full account of this important period ever published. The number of lectures in this volume is seven, commencing at 1745 and including a period of nearly twenty-five years. It abounds in personal anecdotes illustrating the characters of the principal men of those days, and delineates with much fullness and with a degree of romantic interest, the more important public events of the period. Few historical works relating to those early days and to a distant part of the country, surpass in attractions for the general reader, these lectures; and few give clearer views of the customs and actions of the early setlers.

2.—*Essays on the Progress of Nations in Civilization, Productive Industry, Wealth, and Population. Illustrated by Statistics of Mining, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Coin, Banking, Internal Improvements, Emigration, and Population.* By EZRA C. SEAMAN. 12mo., pp. 681. New York: Chas. Scribner.

In this important volume, the object of the author has been to show the effect on the progress of man and of nations, of civil, political, and religious liberty; of the development of the intellect, of educating the whole people, of the discoveries, inventions, machinery, and improvements of modern times, of adapting the divisions of employments to the condition and wants of the country, of the use of the precious metals, banks, foreign debts, colonial bondage, associations and confederated systems of government, of despotism, ecclesiastical hierarchies, and all attempts to enforce uniformity of opinion in matters of government and religion. It has been his aim also to inquire into the causes and principal elements of individual and national progress, and the institutions which tend to promote it, as well as those which have a contrary tendency. The volume is full of important information, prepared and arranged with much clearness and force, and written in a thoughtful and interesting style and manner.

3.—*Outlines of Moral Science.* By ARCHIBALD ALEXANDER, D. D. 12mo., pp. 266. New York: Chas. Scribner.

The author of this work was one of the distinguished divines of the Presbyterian Church, until his recent decease. These pages form the last work of his pen. Its title indicates its true character. It consists of outlines merely of moral science; or rather it is a clever and comprehensive summary of the opinions of philosophers on this subject, with the opinions of the author likewise. As a summary it is more valuable to the public, than as a work possessing any new or special value of its own.

4.—*Queer Bonnets; or, Truthfulness and Generosity. A Book for Girls.* By Mrs. L. C. TUTHILL. 12mo., pp. 294. New York: Charles Scribner.

The importance of Truthfulness and Generosity is set forth in a very pleasant series of incidents in this volume. The impression which it will make upon the young will be strong and good, at the same time it is attractive and interesting for all readers.

5.—*Little Silverstring; or Tales and Poems for the Young.* By W. O. BOURNE. 12mo., pp. 556. New York: Chas. Scribner.

Tales and poems form the contents of this volume, which are generally interesting and attractive for young readers. The embellishments are quite numerous.

6.—*Voices of Nature to Her Foster Child, the Soul of Man. A Series of Analogies Between the Natural and the Spiritual World.* By the author of "A Reel in a Bottle." Edited by Rev. HENRY T. CHEEVER. 12mo., pp. 430. New York: Chas. Scribner.

The religious mind will find much material for contemplation in these pages. The true interpretation of nature, and the voice of each season respectively, is the subject under the consideration of the writer. Thoughtful, suggestive, and elevating in their tone, these pages are still deficient in that true and genuine feeling which goes directly to the heart, and which in contemplations of nature should never be forced to give place to intellectual reflections, and cold opinions. The design of the author to detect the analogies between the natural and spiritual world, as it is designated, is an excellent one, and so far as he has advanced therein he has clothed the subject with much importance.

7.—*Mercantile Morals; or, Thoughts for Young Men entering Mercantile Life.* By WM. H. VAN DOREN. 12mo., pp. 487. New York: Charles Scribner.

It has been more particularly the object of the author of this work to prepare such a volume as would be suitable to place in the hands of all young men as they enter mercantile life. It is not a naked catalogue of the "tricks of trade," or dry, abstruse reasonings upon the morals of Commerce; but a mass of illustrations drawn from history, science, real life, &c., which may render the subject still more attractive to youthful minds. It will prove a useful and valuable work within the field which it occupies.

8.—*Our First Mother.* 12mo., pp. 295. New York: C. Scribner.

In this volume the author aims to convey to young persons, instruction upon a number of topics suggested by the Mosaic history, and more or less connected with the character of Eve—the first mother. Under the form of evening lectures by a Christian matron to her daughters, he introduces a variety of interesting subjects, which are occasionally enlivened by questions and answers in a graceful conversational style. The moral tendency of the whole work is excellent; it is practical and devotional, and calculated to produce excellent impressions.

9.—*Electrotype Manipulation.* By CHARLES V. WALKER. 18mo., pp. 149. Philadelphia: Henry C. Baird.

This convenient little manual is divided into two parts. The first contains the theory and plain instructions in the art of working metals by precipitating them from their solutions, through the agency of galvanic or voltaic electricity. The second, similar instructions in the art of Electro-Gilding, and Electro-Etching, with an account of the mode of depositing metallic oxides, and also of the several applications of electrotype in the arts. The plain and simple rules laid down are familiarly illustrated by woodcuts, which renders it at once just such a book as the uninitiated require.

10.—*The Complete Practical Brewer.* By M. L. BYRN, M. D., graduate of the University of New York, &c. Philadelphia: Henry C. Baird.

We have, in this *un*-voluminous volume, plain, concise, and apparently accurate and thorough instructions in the art of brewing all kinds of ale, beer, porter, &c., including the process of making Bavarian beer, and all the small beers, including those drank by members of the temperance societies. The work is adapted to the use of public brewers and private families, or those who wish to brew on a small scale.

11.—*The Pyrotechnist's Companion; or, a Familiar System of Recreative Fireworks.* By G. W. MORTIMER. First American from the Second London Revised Edition. 18mo., pp. 168. Philadelphia: Henry C. Baird.

This little manual presents, in a clear and comprehensive form, the art of employing fire for purposes of pleasure. It gives plain and efficient rules for the safe management of making, by means of gunpowder and other inflammable substances, single fireworks, rockets, and every variety of compound works, at once agreeable to the eye by their form and splendor.

12.—*Evelina; or the History of a Young Lady's Introduction to the World.* By Miss BURNEY. 12mo., pp. 199. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A new edition of an old and popular tale.

13.—*Knick Knacks.* By Louis Gaylord Clarke. 12mo., pp. 333. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Scarcely any one can be unacquainted with the rare materials which compose the "editor's table" in the Knickerbocker Magazine. It is from this unrivaled storehouse of humor and pathos that the contents of this lively volume are selected. It may unquestionably be regarded as the book of the season, full of choice entertainment, pleasing by the admirable impressions produced in the mind of the reader. It was perhaps undertaken at the suggestion of Washington Irving, who writes to the author thus: "You will perhaps remember that I once spoke to you upon the subject, and have often thought it a great pity that the sallies of humor, the entertaining incidents, and the touches of tender pathos, which are so frequently to be met with in your 'gossip,' should be comparatively lost among the multitudinous leaves of a magazine."

14.—*A Digest of English Grammar, Synthetical and Analytical, Classified and Methodically Arranged, Accompanied by a Chart of Sentences, and adapted to the use of Schools.* By L. T. Lovell. 12mo., pp. 218, New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In the preparation of these pages, the author has had a very commendable object in view. He has endeavored to reduce to a concise yet comprehensive system the true principles of language, and to form a consistent and practical digest of established rules, and to add to the popular system of grammar some new features, and also to improve upon those already received. It is a work in which teachers will find much which is new and valuable that will greatly aid them in imparting instruction.

15.—*Reuben Medlicott; or the Coming Man.* By M. W. Savage. 12mo., pp. 443. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A tale by the author of the "Bachelor of Albany." It may be read with profit by all persons. It is well written, thoughtful, substantial, and possesses interest. The author aims to show that success in life depends neither upon education or talent, but a steady adherance to one pursuit; and the hero is represented as possessing every qualification for success but the single one of tenacity of purpose.

16.—*A Journal Kept During a Summer Tour, for the Children of a Village School,* By Mrs. Sewall. Part 1, from Ostend to Lake Constance; part 2, to the Simplon. part 3, through part of Tyrol to Genoa. 12mo., pp. 500. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a very pleasant narrative of a tour in a portion of Europe. Written for the entertainment and instruction of youthful readers; it is marked by simplicity of style, and intelligence combined with an attractive and flowing narrative which will secure it a welcome with all.

17.—*First Lessons in Book Keeping. Introductory to a Treatise on Practical Book Keeping and Business Transactions; Embracing the Science of Accounts and their Extensive Application. Designed as a Class-Book for Academies and Schools.* By Joseph H. Palmer. 12mo., pp. 40. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is an admirable little manual for beginners, both on account of its simplicity and its clearness of method.

18.—*The Elements of Geology, adapted to the Use of Schools and Colleges.* By Justin R. Loomis. With numerous illustrations. 12mo., pp. 198. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

It is the aim of this volume to present a systematic and somewhat complete statement of the principles of geology, within such limits as they may be thoroughly studied, in the time usually allotted to this science in schools and colleges. Technical terms have been generally avoided. A large share of the work is devoted to the explanation of geological phenomena, suitable to convey an idea of the modes of investigation adopted, and the kind of evidence relied on. All discussions on debatable points have been avoided, and as much unity and completeness observed in the method, as was really practicable.

19.—*Essays and Reviews, Chiefly on Theology, Politics, and Socialism.* By O. A. Bronson, LL. D. 12mo., pp. 521. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

These are the later essays of a vigorous, bold, and confidential writer, bearing chiefly upon the theme which has principally engrossed his thoughts during the past few years. This is the pre-eminence of Catholicism over Protestantism, Republicanism, and every other human principle. In urging his favorite points, he has manifested many excellent and admirable characteristics, both as a thinker and a writer; so much so, indeed, as to become entitled to a very prominent place among American Essayists. His peculiar opinions, however, we must confess that "we do abominate;" and if we should desire to refute some of them nothing more would be necessary to do, than to array the writer against himself. Such a charge of unstableness as this is, would entirely extinguish the influence of most writers and men. Not so with Bronson. His merits overtop all these infirmities, and he will be read without perhaps producing conviction for a long time yet to come. Men will admire those strong traits of mind, which, though submerged and swallowed up in the great Gulf of Uniformity, can yet preserve and manifest somewhat of their original vitality.

20.—*Australia and Her Gold Regions: A Full Description of Its Geology, Climate, Products, Natives, Agriculture, Mineral Resources, Society, and Principal Cities; Accompanied with a Map of the Country and Statistical Tables Showing the Regulation and Results of Mining Operations, Cost of Passage, Necessary Outfit, and every Particular of Information Requisite for those Desirous of Emigrating. The whole Forming a Complete Guide-Book to the Gold Mines.* By R. G. Jamieson. 12mo., pp. 188. New York: G. P. Putnam.

As a reliable work on Australia, and as one which furnishes a large share of information useful to emigrants to that distant portion of the world, this work is highly commended.

21.—*Garden Walks with the Poets.* By Mrs. C. M. Kirkland. 12mo., pp. 315. New York: G. P. Putnam.

This is a selection from more than eighty of the favorite English and American poets of verses upon the garden and its accompaniments. They are arranged in the order of the seasons, commencing with early spring and closing with the withered leaves of autumn. The selection includes some of the finest gems of poetry. It is a treasure for the good taste and excellent sentiments expressed in its contents. As a gift book, although without illustrations, it is a happy idea.

22.—*Eagle Pass; or Life on the Border.* By Cora Montgomery. 12mo., pp. 188. New York: G. P. Putnam.

This volume forms number eighteen of Putnam's Popular Library. It presents a very faithful picture of Peon slavery on the Mexican border, and is interspersed with numerous striking and interesting scenes in that wild and romantic region.

23.—*Oracles for Youth. A Home Pastime.* By Caroline Gilman, author of "The Sibil," "The Southern Matron," &c. New York: Geo. P. Putnam.

A charming book, designed to amuse children, and render conversation pleasant and profitable.

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This is a portraiture of the expansion of the mind and heart in the progress from childhood to manhood, and the gradual conversion of the heart from the objects of the world to religious pursuits. It is written with spirit and vigor, contains many interesting passages, and will prove acceptable to persons of religious inclination.

25.—*The Rainbow in the North: A Short Account of the First Establishment of Christianity in Rupert's Sound, by the Church Missionary Society.* By S. Tucker. 12mo., pp. 308. Robert Carter & Brother.

These pages contain much information respecting the early history of some very interesting mission establishments, in a distant and bleak portion of this continent. The hardships and trials of the missionaries, and the peculiar habits and customs of the natives, are narrated in a simple style and with genuine feeling.

26.—*Holiday House; A Series of Tales.* By CATHARINE SINCLAIR. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

Many volumes of miscellaneous tales are printed only to make a book, of which one or two are generally good and the remainder quite indifferent. But such is not the fact with this volume. The tales are numerous and excellent. The author has attempted to depict youthful life with that genuine gleesome spirit it truly possesses, and free from those cold artificial habits which are too often fastened upon youth by the ignorance of parents and teachers. Her book is worthy of a wide circulation.

27.—*Earlswood; or Lights and Shadows of the Anglican Church. A Tale for the Times.* By CHARLOTTE ANGLEY. 12mo., pp. 314. New York: Robert Carter & Brother.

This is a tale of considerable interest. It is of religious tone, and impresses upon the mind thoughts and sentiments of the highest value. It is carefully written, displaying a cultivated taste and elevated mind.

28.—*The Personal Adventures of "Our Own Correspondent" in Italy. Showing how an Active Campaigner can find good Quarters, when Others may Lie in the Fields; Good Dinners while Many are Half Starved; and Good Wine though the King's Staff be Reduced to Half Rations.* By MICHAEL B. HONAN. 12mo., pp. 425. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This agreeable volume is from the pen of one who acted as the correspondent of the *London Times*, during the time of Charles Albert's struggle in Milan. It is not made up of letters which appeared in that print, on the contrary, it consists of matter extraneous entirely to the letters, and yet of sufficient interest and entertainment, to be issued in a separate volume. Our readers may depend upon finding it an agreeable book. It is all the more so, from the experience of the author as a correspondent of the public press.

29.—*Parisian Sights and French Principles seen Through American Spectacles.* 12mo., pp. 264. New York: Harper & Bros.

Parisian life is sketched in this volume with much detail. The author follows very much after the manner of Sir Francis Head, lacking, however, that piquancy and point which characterize Head. In these pages the reader is, in may instances, introduced behind the curtains of French life, and learns much that does not often find its way into books of travel. It is written with much spirit and life, and contains matters of interest to all readers. The illustrations are quite numerous and add to the impressions of the text.

30.—*The Forest.* By J. V. HUNTINGTON. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Our readers will remember "Alban," a tale by this author, which attracted some attention not long since. In these pages we have a continuation of the same story, and a higher and more mature development of the same characters. The author writes with vigor and power. There may be some exceptionable passages and blemishes in his pages, but taken as a whole, the reader will find this a tale of more than ordinary merit.

31.—*Regal Rome. An Introduction to Roman History.* By FRANCIS W. NEWMAN, Prof. in University College, London. 12mo., pp. 182. New York: J. S. Redfield.

An introduction to Roman history with the developments of the present day, from the pen of this able writer, cannot fail to attract attention. Although brief, many important suggestions are advanced which will arrest the thoughtful reader. The volume treats only of the history of the Roman Kings, and is written with much elegance and vigor.

32.—*Meyer's Universum.* Vol. 1. Parts 7 and 8. New York: Herman J. Meyer.

The interest of this publication is well sustained. The plates of which it consists are very finely executed, and the text is graphic, instructive, and entertaining. The illustrations of these numbers are "Bremen," "The Obelisk of Luxor," "Saratoga Lake," "The Cottage of Kosseva," "Washington's House at Mount Vernon," with text by Horace Greeley, "Enlongen," (Bavaria,) "Cape Horn," "A Masked Ball in Paris."

33.—*The Eclipse of Faith: or a Visit to a Religious Skeptic.* 12mo., pp. 452. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

Every intelligent reader will admire this volume as one of the remarkable books of the day. Its author, Henry Rodgers, a contributor to the Edinburgh Review, is a powerful and clear writer, and seeks to establish the evidences of religion upon a secure and logical basis, by arranging the leaders and representatives of different phases of faith against each other. Opposite opinions are thus combated with a force and skill which their champions will find extremely difficult to resist, especially those whose views tend to skepticism. The arguments are maintained in the style of ancient dialogue and with much of their brilliancy and effect.

34.—*Letters to a Millenarian.* By Rev. A. Williamson. 16mo., pp. 180. New York: M. W. Dodd.

In this series of letters the author endeavors to explain the promises of God to Abraham, as expounded by the prophets under the character of a will or testament, in which God, by covenant, promises to bequeath to Abraham and his seed rich legacies, to be paid over to them in successive generations. He then proceeds to inquire who are at present the lawful heirs of this will, and what legacies are still due to these heirs. These questions are answered to the exclusion of Jews as such, and to the introduction as heirs of those who are truly Christians.

35.—*Personal Memoirs and Recollections of Editorial Life.* By Joseph Buckingham. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 256 & 255. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The unseen life of an editor, that portion of his days which is devoted to labors for the information of the public, although known only by its results, is often full of incident. The characters which are presented to him are more diversified than to men in any other pursuit. These memorials of Buckingham will be found full of interest by any one whose experience has made him acquainted with editorial pursuits. But it is not for such alone that these volumes possess attractions. The general reader will here find the veil removed from one most important and attractive pursuit in society—"the Fourth Estate."

36.—*Bibliotheca Americana. Catalogue of American Publications, Including Reprints and Original Works, from* 1820 *to* 1852 *Inclusive. Together with a List of Periodicals Published in the United States.* Compiled and arranged by O. A. Roorbach. 8vo., pp. 652. New York: O. A. Roorbach.

Probably this is the most perfect list of American books published within the period it embraces, which will ever be prepared. It contains upwards of twenty-four thousand titles, and all that have appeared up to the present time whereof the compiler was informed. The prices, publisher's name, author, and, in many instances, the date of issue are given. A classification of the volumes would furnish a very interesting picture of the character of American books in most demand.

37.—*Waverley Novels. The Pirate and The Fortunes of Nigel.* Vols. 12, 13 and 14. 12mo., pp. 269, 285 and 335. Boston: Parker & Mussey.

The large type, and the clear and distinct impression, as well as the general taste and neatness with which these volumes are put forth, render this one of the most desirable editions of the Waverley Novels.

38.—*Introductory Lessons in Reading and Elocution.* Part 1st. By R. G. Parker. Part 2d. *Lessons in Elocution.* By J. C. Zachos. 12mo., pp. 195. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

39.—*The Spaewife: or the Queen's Secret. A Story of the Times of Elizabeth.* By Paul Peppergrass, Esq. Part 3. Baltimore: John Murphy.

40.—*Romance of American History, as Illustrated in the Early Events Connected with the French Settlement of Fort Carolina, the Spanish Colony at St. Augustine, and the English Plantation at Jamestown.* By J. Banvard. 16mo., pp. 306. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

Many of the early scenes in American history are here related with all the fascination of romance. The work is admirably adapted to awaken in youthful minds a desire to prosecute the study of American history.

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